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ABSTRACT

Research related to the aspirations of the Hispanic woman for educational and labor force achievement in relation to her role as wife and mother is presented. The document contains two reports. The first, "Young Hispanics in the United States--Their Aspirations for the Future: Findings from Two National Surveys," is based on analysis of the National Longitudinal Survey of Labor Force Behavior and the High School and Beyond Survey. The aspirations of Hispanic adolescents are profiled and compared with Black and White adolescents. Findings focus primarily on the effect of the interaction between sex and ethnicity on young people's perceptions of their ability to achieve. The second report, "Young Hispanic Mothers Enrolled in School and/or Employed Who Were Interviewed in the National Longitudinal Survey of Labor Force Behavior," reports on a comparison of Hispanic, Black, and White working and/or studying mothers in terms of educational, work, and family status, attitudes, and aspirations. (This document contains over 100 statistical tables.) (KH)

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ASPIRATIONS OF ADOLESCENT HISPANIC FEMALES FOR MARRIAGE, CHILDREN, EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

Final Report to the
Hispanic Youth Employment Research Center
National Council of La Raza
Washington, D.C.

from

Sally J. Andrade & Marcia G. Torres

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I. INTRODUCTION

The current research situation is characterized by a lack of empirical data on Hispanic adolescents and by conceptual paradigms explaining the socioeconomic status of Hispanic families which emphasize individual or group characteristics taken out of social and ecological contexts. Demographic patterns within the Hispanic population indicate an unusual rate of growth and a young median age in contrast to Whites/Anglos. Thus, a high number and percentage of Hispanic women are entering their prime childbearing years, while comparable groups of White/Anglo women are approaching the later period of their potential fertility. Another striking demographic characteristic of Hispanic women is their socioeconomically disadvantaged position in relation to Whites/Anglos: Hispanic women have fewer years of schooling, a lower rate of participation in the labor force, and higher unemployment rates.

Much of contemporary social science research attempts to explain these demographic characteristics through cultural and/or intrapsychic explanations. An interpretation frequently utilized is that a self-limiting dynamic on the part of the Hispanic family and the individual Hispanic woman leads toward an almost exclusively maternal role for women in their culture. This view generates and sustains in our society an image of Hispanic women as uninterested in education and employment or as essentially uneducable and unemployable, except in the most menial of domestic service positions.

What is not available in the social science literature are large-scale surveys of Hispanic women or of Hispanic adolescents within the contexts of their families that could identify and permit an analysis of the systemic factors that affect the socio-psychological development of young Hispanic women. The authors assume that the factors of racism, ethnocentrism and social class bias interact with sexism to impact both the self-image and the acutual possibilities for upward mobility of teenage Hispanic females. While U. S. society has demonstrated some increased sensitivity toward fostering opportunities for girls and women (as manifested in instances of federal and state legislation, school initiatives and community programs), few such efforts encompass a concern or an awareness of Hispanic females. The lack of data makes it difficult to evaluate such programs with respect to services for Hispanics or to justify the need for creation of more responsive programs.

The goal of this paper is to provide descriptive profiles of the aspirations of adolescent Hispanic females and males and an analysis of the relative differences and similarities between young Hispanics and the other major racial/ethnic groups in our society, Whites/Anglos and Blacks. The findings focus primarily on the interaction between sex and ethnicity in terms of its effect on young people's perceptions of their ability to achieve. Discussion will relate these results to existing images of Hispanic women in U. S. society. This information and its implications should facilitate decisions concerning the planning and allocation of federal, state and local resources for intervention programs sensitive to the needs and the potential for accomplishment of young Hispanic women.

II. OVERVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

The multiple facets of motherhood and achievement motivations are not the exclusive concern of Hispanic women. All reproductively and intellectually capable women must consciously or unconsciously come to terms with the potential dilemmas, satisfactions and frustrations which the dual role of mother/achiever represents. It is thus necessary to summarize briefly the main issues identified in the literature regarding women's dilemmas in relation to achievement and motherhood. The purpose of this introductory section is to provide readers with a general understanding of the psychological context of Hispanic women's dual roles and conflicts.

Through a series of logical arguments and associations, many cultures and societies have historically attributed achievement to the male and nurturance to the female of the species. Achievement has been linked with aggression, penetration, independence, competition, action and worldly accomplishment. In contrast, nurturance has been linked with passivity, dependence, penetrability, masochistic receptivity, a sense of inferiority and sheltered motherhood. This was clearly Freud's early viewpoint, as he described the world as the exclusive domain of the male, whose power and authority was literally and symbolically a natural consequence of his phallus. All other psychological expereinces, including the psychosexual development of the female, were seen as reactions to this "reality" (Freud, 1927).

Freud's seminal work on psychosexual development and sex-related differences remained relatively unchallenged for several decades. Most of the thoretical pieces were further elaborations of his basic concepts (Benedek, 1952; Bonaparte, 1974). A new orientation, however, began to emerge in the work of the "culturalists." The primary contributors to this movement were Horney, Sullivan, Thompson and Fromm. These theorists began to focus more attention on the influences of social and cultural phenomena and their interaction with biological and psychodynamic factors.

Horney (1926), for example, concurred with the logic of Freud's theory of male development. One of her most note-worthy contributions, however, was her reinterpretation of the concept of the origin of the woman's "inferiority." Horney suggested that this experience was not primarily the result of a sense of clitoral inferiority on the part of the female, as Freud had suggested, but rather a social product of the male's envy of the female's reproductive capacity and role. Thus, she and the other culturalists began to examine external obstacles (e.g., parental pressures, a man's interpretation of a woman's effort to succeed as evidence of her lack of love for him or as a threat to his masculinity, less access to education, lower wages, etc.), as well as intrapsychic dynamics.

The third, and most recent, work on women in relation to achievement and motherhood has occurred in the past 15 years.

The nature/nurture controversy continues in this area, as in many others; nevertheless, the period has been characterized by more empirically based and larger samples and more sophisticated theories examing both sides of the issue. The topics have been essentially the same as in the earlier period: biological determinants, motives to achieve, ego development and self esteem, dependence, passivity, aggression, and the motivation to nurture and reproduce. Although many individuals have contributed to this work, two who are preeminant are Bardwick (1970; 1971) and Horner (1970). Bardwick's biocultural theory of female development, which proposes both hormonal and social influences, and Horner's work on fear of success have had major impact on our understanding of motivational issues affecting women in relation to achievement and reproduction.

Thus, there has been quite an evolution in the theoretical understanding of women from the earliest of Freud's writings to contemporary researchers. This trend has moved theory from an initial position of attributed feminine inferiority in all psychological and biological realms to an achknowledgment of both the element of creativity involved in the maternal role and the capacity of women for intellecutal and occupational achievement. Theory still assumes as a given, however, that a woman's success-oriented efforts are essentially a manifestation or redirection of her fundamental affiliative needs.

Hispanic women in the United States: Their Motivation for Motherhood and Achievement

A review of research literature on young Hispanic women in relation to achievement motivation and experiences in the maternal role yields little data. There are even fewer data derived from large sample survey interviews. A number of studies exist, however, which attempt to dissect Hispanic mother/child interactions, particularly in relation to the development of low self-esteem, external locus of control and field dependence, and low levels of academic achievement, which are frequently attributed to Hispnaic children, as well as other culturally different children in this society. The focus of these studies has been on how Hispanic parents and their culture work to constrict the occupational and intellectual pursuits of Hispanic children, as well as to foment inflexible sex roles in them (see, for example, the work of Díaz-Guerrero, 1975, and Kiev, 1968; Stanton, 1972, discusses other examples).

The remainder of this literature review is organized into three parts: the general characteristics of Hispanic women; psychological factors related to achievement and family roles of Hispanic women; and external factors impacting Hispanic women with respect to their educational, occupational and economic development.

General Characteristics of Hispanic Women in the United States

Hispanics or Latinos comprise approximately 6.4% of the total 226,504,825 individuals in the United States (La Red, 1981). Of the estimated 14,605,883 Hispanic Americans living on the mainland, about 75% are found in five states: California, Texas, New York, Florida and New Mexico. Such Census data help to document a striking pattern in the U. S. population growth rates.

The Vice President's Task Force on Youth Employment projected the following growth patterns between 1980 and 1990: Whites 7.5%, Blacks 12.1% and Hispanics 28.0%. Given these figures, one would expect the complexion of the U. S. job market to be changing accordingly, i.e., to include larger numbers of Blacks and Hispanics. This is not, however, the case. For example, while Hispanic and Black young people comprise 19.7% of the youth population, they represent 29.4% of unemployed youth. The Task Force identified four groups which have particular difficulties in the critical school-to-work transition: women, dropouts, minorities, and youth from poor families. The Task Force also emphasized that individuals who belong to two or more of these groups have a higher chance of being unemployed (The Vice President's Task Force on Youth Employment, 1980).

These facts are particularly important in that 74% of the national total of Hispanic women is comprised primarily of Mexcian American and Puerto Rican women who exist in highly stressful economic circumstances and who have limited possibilities for any upward mobility due to their lack of education and job opportunities (Andrade, 1982). There are significant differences between these two groups and other Hispanic women, as well as White, non-Spanish-origin women. Mexican American and Puerto Rican women are notably younger, less educated and suffer from higher unemployment rates. In terms of earning, however, all women are remarkably similar in the low levels of median income that characterize each racial/ethnic group in comparison to the earnings of men. Brown, Rosen, Hill and Olivas (1980) summarized data from the U. S. Department of Commerce, documenting that, of the employed population age 14 and over in 1977, the Hispanic female subgroup had the lowest median income, the highest percent of income below $5,000, and the lowest percent with income over $25,000. Furthermore, other Commerce Department data showed that Hispanic females' school non-enrollment rates jumped from 12.2% at ages 16-17 to 39.6% at ages 18-19. Thus, it is obvious that to be Hispanic and female is to be at significantly high risk for less education, higher unemployment rates, and lower pay.

Within social science research to date, there have been two different perspectives which have primarily been utilized in conceptualizing the life experience of Hispanic women. The predominant view has consisted of focusing on the intrapsychic, familial and cultural group characteristics (often defined by an external, culturally different observer) which have frequently been viewed as making female members of this group "less educable" and "less employable." It tends to label Hispanic women as highly motivated to marry and have children and as non-desirous of upward mobility in terms of college or employment outside the home (Andrade, 1980).

Investigators who have sought to develop an alternative paradigm for the study of Hispanic women and their families have expanded their interpretations and analyses to include issues that are social, institutional and economic in nature. They have attempted to incorporate the effects of such factors as religion, social status, class, language, education, employment, physical and social mobility, acculturation and assimilation, as well as other topics related to institutional responses to Hispanics (e.g., Achor, 1978; Baca Zinn, 1980; Melville, 1980; Portes & Bach, 1980).

To summarize, the psychocultural perspective of Hispanic females has relied almost exclusively on intrapsychic and cultural interpretations. Using these two orientations, this theoretical approach has tried to explain Hispanic women's experiences in their families, at school and on the job. Its lack of attention to systemic factors requires that it be challenged empirically and confronted with more conceptually sound theories of Hispanic family development. Because of the youthful character of the Hispanic population, the limited amount of information available on Hispanic adolescents, particularly in terms of young Hispanic women's concerns with respect to marriage and family formation (Andrade, 1981; Martínez, 1981), underscores the importance of research which focuses on the characteristics of Hispanic teenagers and their perceptions of opportunities for achievement.

Psychological Factors Related to Achievement and Family Roles of Hispanic Women

Self concept. Research on the self concept is fairly recent. The work carried out in the last 15 years on culturally different groups has frequently considered environmental factors in addition to psychological influences. Cota-Robles de Suárez (1971) identified the following negative psychological consequences of discrimination against Hispanics: A concern with the negative implications of ethnicity, denial of ethnic group membership, withdrawal, passivity, clowning, self-hatred, and aggression against their own group. A longitudinal study by Fu (1979) showed that Euroamericans had a more positive self concept than did Blacks, who were better off than Hispanics. The author hypothesized that the differences were due to different sociocultural environments, as well as differences in accessibility to opportunities.

Similarly, Padilla and Ruiz (1973) observed that the negative self concept of Hispanics, previously viewed as intrapsychic in nature, seemed to be exascerbated by such environmental factors as length of time in the United States. For example, Dworkin (1965) reported evidence which supported the hypothesis that U. S. native-born Mexican Americans had significantly more negative attitudes about themselves than did Mexican- or foreign-born Mexican Americans. Similarly, Siegel (1957) noted that as the length of stay in Philadelphia increased for Puerto Ricans, so did the frequency of mention of "discrimination" as what was least liked about Philadelphia. In addition to specific perceptions of discrimination in interpersonal social areas, respondents in the study also referred to unemployment as one of the greatest problems they faced after leaving Puerto Rico. Additional studies cited by Padilla and Ruiz addressed other consequences of majority group prejudice and institutional racism, such as inferior schools.

More positively, Peñalosa (1970) suggested that in the late 1960s, Mexican Americans were undergoing a process of enhanced group self-esteem. Padilla and Ruiz (1973) theorized that this socially dynamic phenomenon could well be the result of the Chicano and Puerto Rican movimientos of the period.

Other research has tried to identify the separate components involved in the development of negative self concepts reported by some Hispanic students with surprising results. Larned and Muller (1979) studied Mexican American and Anglo students in grades 3-8 and produced no evidence of different development patterns between the two groups in self esteem as they progressed through the school system. The authors hypothesized that this was due to unique characteristics of the community, in that the Mexican American population was large in the area. Carter (1968) summarized interaction between intrapsychic issues (low self esteem) and interpersonal issues (discrimination and negative expectations) with the following comment:

> Nothing supported the belief that Mexican American students saw themselves more negatively than did Anglo students. However, it was very obvious that teachers and administrators believe them to be inferior and to conclude they saw themselves that way. (Carter, 1968, p. 218)

There are few studies of Hispanic women's self concept. Sink (1978) measured the self concept of Mexican American adolescents and found that the males in the study consistently had a higher level of self esteem than did the females. In contrast, Rossello (1980) reported that when comparing mainland and island Puerto Ricans, in both groups females had higher self esteem than did males. The author concluded that self concept was affected by a number of variables and that an assumption of uniformity regarding self concept was fallacious.

Hiskisi (1969) found less favorable "self" and "ideal self" concepts among California Mexican American 6th grade girls than among Georgia non-Mexican American girls. Additional data revealed a larger correlation between self concept and academic achievement for Mexican American girls than for others. Mexican American girls also had sufficient self esteem to perform well in school and to plan for higher education.

In the area of self concept and achievement, Gaston (1972) reported no relationship between self concept and achievement among an economically disadvantaged group of young women enrolled in a federal job training program. All four racial/ethnic groups (Blacks, Caucasians, Spanish Americans and Indians, to use her terms) had a lower self concept than the establish norms of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. She also found that the groups' levels of self concept fell in the following order, from high to low: Blacks, Caucasians, Spanish Americans and Indians. She stated that low self concept seemed to be linked to socioeconomic status rather than to any other factor.

Some of the discrepancies noted in research findings discussed earlier were analyzed by Terrazas (1980) in her study of the self concept of adolescent Mexican American females. She pointed out the theoretical error of equating academic achievement and/or aspirations to the total self concept of the individual. Terrazas went on to discuss the numerous technical problems as yet unresolved in measurement of self concept and the problems often overlooked by researchers working with culturally different populations. In her research, Terrazas used a sample of 124 female Mexican American teenagers and a battery of self concept instruments. She found that the self concepts of her sample were just as positive as would be expected in the general population.

The construct of self concept has been an illusive and troublesome one for psychology. Studies which have attempted to explore the self esteem of culturally different groups have been plagued with confounding variables which have seldom been controlled for until recently. Finally, research on Hispanic females is faced with particularly complex interactions of confounding variables. In general, one can conclude the following: there appears to be some correlation between one component of self concept and motivational aspirations. Low self concept is linked to low socioeconomic status, the latter being a characteristics typical of most Hispanic females. Problems of self esteem are exascerbated by environmental stressors, such as discrimination, inferior schools and unemployment, as well other factors pressuring Hispanic females.

Locus of control. Another closely related dimension which has intrigued researchers in relation to the psychological experience of individuals and females in general is the concept of locus of control, or field dependence. Field dependence, i.e., an external locus of control, has traditionally been attributed to women and "minority groups." For example, Britain (1974) studied 72 Cuban and U.S. adolescents and reported significant main effects for sex and culture: U. S. males were more field independent than U. S. females, who were more so than Cuban males, who were higher than Cuban females.

In a similar study, Kagan (1976) concluded that field dependence explained the school achievement gap between Anglo students and Mexican American students. Mexican American children were viewed as significantly more field dependent than Anglo children. Kagan also concluded that this was a function of the Mexican American children's closeness to traditional Mexican culture. Díaz-Guerrero (1975) proposed that Anglo Americans are motivated by power and achievement, while Mexicans are influenced by affiliation and love. He further noted that Mexican laborers' motivational needs ranged in intensity from hunger to belonging. Figueroa (1980) examined the dimension of locus of control across White, Hispanic and Anglo groups of lower socioeconomic status and found no differences, however.

Two studies have focused specifically on Hispanic women. Arroyo (1974) analyzed the Farah garment workers' strike in El Paso, Texas. Most of the strikers were lower socioeconomic status Chicanas, or Mexican American women. An image of Chicana workers emerged in her study as a group of active, struggling women, quite different from earlier portrayals in the social sciences. Carrillo (1974) investigated the locus of control of 25 Chicana and 25 Anglo female college students. She found no differences between the two groups: both had high ratings on external locus of control measures.

One can conclude from the above outline of research that although results are mixed, the predominant image of Hispanic women is that of individuals with an external locus of control due to their sex and their culture. This is particularly reflective of studies which did not control for socioeconomic status.

Educational and work aspirations. Attitudes about roles and related aspirations are key factors to consider in the exploration of the psychological experience of Hispanic women. An earlier section mentioned theoretical expositions on the subject of the female's basic passivity and masochism which originated in Freudian theory. Such a non-aspirational female model has been combined, in the case of Hispanic women, with the cultural notions of contemporary society to produce portrayals which include rigid sex role expectations, socialized traits of self-belittlement, passivity and conflicts about security and sexual satisfaction. The strong implication of much of such research is that all of these factors were conditioned primarily by familial and cultural experiences, particularly for the Mexican and Mexican American female. There are a number of more recent empirical studies that have explored these issues and produced some interesting findings. For example, in a study of the occupational orientations of 914 Anglo, Black and Mexican American high school students in Galveston, Texas, Crawford (1975) found that Blacks had higher educational aspirations than Mexican Americans, but both groups had higher aspirations than did Anglos in relation to educational and occupational goals.

Laffite (1974) studied 148 students of diverse cultural backgrounds and reported that females valued altruism and supervisory relationships, while males valued independence, economic returns and intellectual stimulation. Blacks valued economic returns more than any other group, and Mexican Americans valued "way of life" and security most highly. However, a study of 60 Hispanic females and 60 White college women by Samaniego (198) found that her sample of Hispanic women did not exhibit any motive to avoid success.

In one of the few studies specifically on young mothers, Cooney (1978) found that of the three groups whose living arrangements she studied, Puerto Ricans were more likely to have a female head of household than were non-Hispanic Blacks or Whites. She also analyzed the criteria used by these mothers to select a particular living arrangement for themselves and their children. They reported them as: preferences, options available, what they could afford, and their desire to be in a better economic position in the future by continuing their education and/or acquiring work experience. In another study, Cooney (1975) reported that the presence of pre-school children was more of a deterrent for Anglo mothers in terms of working outside the home than it was for Mexican American and Black mothers.

Research on maternal employment and ethnic origin with respect to the sex role perceptions of female Cuban American and Anglo adolescents by Lord (1980) found that Cubans aspired to employment after marriage and children, while Anglos most frequently planned to discontinue employment once the first child was born. Lord hypothesized that Cuban American adolescents of upper-middle socioeconomic status are less traditionally feminine and more oriented toward outside employment than generally assumed, although they still retain traditional values of marriage and motherhood.

Stone (1971), in a study of 89 male and 87 female Mexican American and Anglo 11th grade students from lower and middle socioeconomic status backgrounds, reported that scholastic performance and future educational and vocational goals were more closely related to socioeconomic status than to racial group membership. Cooney (1975) concluded the same in her study of differences between Mexican American and Anglo females' labor force participation rates. She found that socioeconomic status factors were more related to their participation rate than were their cultural backgrounds. Additionally, Cooney suggested that "familism" seemed to be declining in the Mexican American population.

Facchina Owings (1981) did a secondary analysis of a sample of women who were seniors in the National Longitudinal Survey of the High School Class of 1972. Among other results, she found that educational aspirations was the most powerful predictor for all groups in terms of their educational attainment by 1979. Early marriage and early childbearing had negative effects for all groups. However, socioeconomic status was not a significant predictor for Hispanic women. She suggested that her results support the hypothesis that factors other than just academic ability have a strong impact on women's educational attainment. She also recommended the need for further exploration of such variables as family and work values, interpersonal support, achievement attitudes and macro-socioeconomic influences in order to understand attainment models for minority women.

It thus appears that in the past 10-15 years, researchers have produced provocative findings on the educational and occupational aspirations of women and culturally different populations. Constrictions formerly perceived in situation of Hispanic women and attributed to her gender and culture have not held up in more recent research. Additionally, socioeconomic status has been found to be related to aspirations and performance in all groups. Specifically, results show that culturally different goups have high aspirational levles and that young Hispanic women reflect behaviorally their interest in advancing in school and work if they can.

Attitudes about Family Roles. Much has been written about family roles and "familism," or the traditionalism, of Hispanic families. This section will review major studies on these topics and the three main orientations used by researchers and theorists to examine the experience of Hispanic women in relation to their family roles.

In a 1955 survey of 294 Mexican males and females in Mexico City, Díaz-Guerrero (1975) concluded that the concept of the "superiority of the male" was the result of an "existential value system" present in Mexican culture and that neurosis-provoking conflicts in Mexicans are internal conflicts caused more by clashes of values than by clashes of individuals with reality. Folan and Weigard (1968) stated that the female in Mexican society gains status solely through marriage, and only by remaining married and having children does she assure her maintenance of that status.

In her assessment of the "traditional role" of Mexican American females described in the literature, Senour (1977) found that they were described as having lower self esteem, being more field dependent, having a less well defined psychic sense of self, beling less competitive and more prosocial, and having lower levels of scholastic achievement. Senour also pointed out a number of limitations in the reviewed studies.

In order to explain the presence of a few successful Hispanic women in educational systems and the labor force, in spite of the assumed burdens of their gender and culture, Knowlton (1965) stated that, "The more educated and acculturated Spanish American families tend to emulate the nuclear family model of the Anglo American." This is a clear example where interpretations of data reflect the tendency to attribute elements considered negative or problematic to that which is foreign or has less political power and to claim normative success as eminating from that which is known and most familiar.

The second orientation which researchers assumed in the exploration of Hispanic women's issues was to include other variables that could effect the behaviorial patterns of Hispanic family role relations. Langner (1965) compared lower, middle and upper class women in Mexico and concluded that higher socioeconomic status women more frequently voiced egalitarian attitudes in relation to sexual equality. Tharp (1968) explored this question with 84 Mexican American wives in Tucson, Arizona, and found that the more "acculturated" the family, the greater the role change was toward more egalitarian compassionate marriage patterns. Tharp found this to be true across levels of education and length of U. S. residency but not necessarily across income and occupational levels.

Baca Zinn (1980) suggested that rather than seeing Mexican American traditional roles as determinants of conjugal roles and interpreting changes in these roles as products of acculturation, there could be other important factors influencing role changes. Her ethnographic study of Mexican American families in an urban New Mexican setting found that as women acquired extradomestic resources, they achieved greater equality in conjugal decision making without having to sacrifice ethnic values in other realms of family life. A study which further explored this dimension among Hispanics was the work of Richmond (1976), where he studied 120 intact Cuban immigrant families in Florida. He reported that wives' contribution of resources was not as important as were the joint efforts, i.e., the level of resources brought into the home by the couple together.

Other work reflects that the question of family roles is not as clear cut nor as static as once thought. For example, Hawkes and Taylor (1975) interviewed 76 Mexican and Mexican American female migrant workers in California. Their findings suggested that either the dominance/submission attributed to Mexican-origin families were less universal than previously assumed, that they never actually existed except as an ideal, or that they were undergoing radical changes. Fletcher (1979) discovered another interesting dimension of sex role expectations in her research on Anglo and Chicano 9th graders in southern New Mexico. Although she found Chicanos to be more "traditional" than Anglos in general, she also reported that males in both groups had more traditional role perceptions than females.

Ginorio (1979) reported that Puerto Rican females in New York were more "acculturated" in relation to gender roles, i.e., they showed more flexibility, than were Puerto Rican males Carrillo (1977) in her study of 96 Chicano and Anglo high school students of both genders from lower socioeconomic status groups in San Francisco found no differences on a value orientation schedule regarding egalatarian sex roles. Asunción-Landé (198) discussed the current status of Mexican American women who struggle with women's issues and concurrently attempt to maintain their own cultural group's values. She described them as becoming more assertive in communicating both their ethnic and their social identity and as determined to enter the mainstream of American society on their own terms.

The third orientation used for the purpose of analyzing Hispanic role relations is represented by researchers who go beyond examing the relationship between environmental stressors such as prejudice and the dynamics of Hispanic families by initiating an examination of the positive adaptiveness involved in some of these behaviors. For example, Keefe, Padilla and Carolos (1979) examined the characteristics and functions of the large cohesive kin groups frequently observed among Mexican Americans and concluded that such a group is a viable and important source of emotional support.

Keefe (1978) considered that the extended family constitutes the primary source of informal support for Mexican Americans and that its absence is thus more distressing for them than it is for Anglo families. When it functions as it is intended to, the Mexican American extended family system is a superior resource for alleviating emotional problems and environmental stress.

Williams (1975) supported such a view in his discussion of family life among migrants who have been the subject of many stereotypes. He viewed the acutely poor status and limited upward mobility of migrants' lives as producing a situation where relaistically the individual finds his or her greatest support in "gathering and binding" with kin who provide him or her, not only with financial, but also emotional support. He concluded that women have been especially critical links in such networks.

In her study of 666 Mexican Americans and 340 Anglos, Keefe (1978) found that the majority of Mexican American respondents were blue collar, semiskilled or unskilled workers, with an average of nine years of schooling, and 40% had been born in Mexico. She described them as more stable, with more kin in the town and interacting more with their families. The "traditional family" did not break down with urbanization, acculturation or socioeconomic mobility. Keefe hypothesized that discrimination by the majority Anglo culture reinforced kinship ties in Mexican Americans. Baca Zinn (1975) commented that the concept of familism has operated as a mechanism of cultural resistance during periods when political resistance was not possible. She concluded that el moviento of the 1960s and thereafter had an integrating effect by guarding family members from the oppression and hostility of Anglo society.

Thus, in addition to psychological or internal experiences, social and economic factors must be assessed in order to understand sex role relations or family dynamics of Hispanics. Role relations do not appear to be static as portrayed in the literature but rather changing in response to environmental and social attitudinal changes. Many of these behaviors are actually positive adaptations to fluctuating social norms, and there is no one description of family role attitudes and relations which could encompass all Hispanic families.

External Barriers

This section will briefly review studies which provide evidence of external barriers which block the development of Hispanic women. First, work that discusses Hispanic attitudes and perceptions of the environment will be outlined. Secondly, studies that demonstrate the existence of systemic problems with which Hispanics and other culturally different people have to contend will be summarized.

Educational settings. Examining the issue from an attitudinal perspective, Ramírez (1971) studied the school attitudes of low socioeconomic status junior and senior high school students. He found that Mexican Americans expressed less positive views toward education than did Anglos, that Mexican Americans scored higher on power and rejection than did Anglos, that Mexican American males scored higher on succorance toward females and on aggression toward domineering females than did Anglo males, and that Mexican American females scored higher on autonomy than did Anglo females. These findings were interpreted by the author as being the result of differences between the value orientations of the two groups.

Reilly (1976) explored the high drop-out rate of Chicano students by administering a questionnaire to 17 male and 23 female Mexican American dropouts. The subjects reported that teachers and counselors were not interested in them, that they did not feel free to discuss problems with teachers, that they had lost interest in school, that they experienced teachers as prejudiced, and that they needed to work because their family income was low. Another result indicated that these students had average grades. The finding concerning family financial problems was confirmed by Eagle (1977) who reported that a major problem identified by 1,000 students in a Bronx community college was financial in nature, especially among Black, Hispanic, female and night students.

Thus, Hispanic students report negative experiences in their school efforts. The logical question which psychology would pose is do these students bring negative attitudes that become self-fulfilling prophesies, or are they accurately perceiving the manifestations of environmental barriers? The question is somewhat difficult for research to resolve clearly, but the purpose of this section is to summarize the information currently available in the literature from both perspectives. The following are investigations that examine the problem from a more systemic orientation.

In an effort to explore external barriers in education which effect Hispanics, Luckey (1975) demonstrated that Mexican American females and White and Black males received the greatest number of teacher referrals to special education classes. High socioeconomic status referrals differed as a function of the behavior of students. However, at the lower socioeconomic levels, referrals did not differ from the original pattern among groups regardless of behavior. This study provides a hint of the higher stress variables with which many Hispanic females must contend early in their education. Mirandé and Enríquez (1979) discussed the double problem of sex-role stereotyping which creates an "unspoken curriculum" for Chicanas, particularly in college. This is exascerbated by a general lack of adequate vocational and career counseling for Mexican American women.

In contrast to their concept of an unspoken curriculum, Salinas (1975) examined that actual written curriculum, i.e., stereotypes of Hispanic women as they are portrayed in Hispanic, Hispanic American and Anglo literature. Findings demonstrated that the portrayal of Hispanic women has two clear distinctions: she is either a "good woman," i.e., one who can do or think no evil, who is pure, understanding, kind, weak, passive, needing protection but having an inner strength and a capacity to endure suffering; or, she is a "bad woman," i.e., evil, seductive, perverted, excessive in passion and love, "condemned by all and in the end severely punished by death or suicide."

Thus, the literature reflects that there is evidence on each side of the attitudinal/systemic question. Hispanic students do have more negative attitudes about school, but there are results documenting the continued existence of systemic discrimination that justify female Hispanic students' realisitically negative assessment of educational systems.

Work and the labor force. There have been a number of studies on the external stressors faced specifically by minories and minority women, including Hispanics, in the world of work. Carliner (1977) analyzed the economic status of minority groups and reported that low occupational achievement resulted from differentially lower quality of education and of labor market discrimination. Baker and Levenson (1976), in an analysis of 1,000 Black, Puerto Rican and White female graduates who had completed the same curriculum, found that Blacks and Puerto Ricans earned considerably less upon entering the work force than did Whites; that they had an initial unemployment rate five times as high as Whites; and that their earnings improved minimally in five years. Problematic factors included the women's race, the location of their jobs, and their access to employment with greater earning potential. Welber (1975) analyzed color, ethnic and sex inequalities in employment, occupational achievement, occupational mobility and earnings. In a cross-ethnic comparison of individuals with the same level of education and training, he found that differences were low but did exist. He also reported that sex discrimination was high, and that ethnic discrimination was the next more serious barrier.

Baker (1975), in a study of job opportunities for Black and White working class women, presented data which support the contention that school and state employment referral and placement services restrict rather than expand the labor market opportunities available to minority women. Seggar (1973) examined the representation of the working world on television and reported that there was an underrepresentation of women, that minorities were the most likely to suffer from stereotypes, and that ethnic groups of small numbers tended to be portrayed homogeneously.

Mirandé and Enríquez (1979) suggested that certain facts must be remembered when analyzing the Chicana's high level of unemployment. As one example, they pointed out that regardless of her educational accomplishments, she tends to receive low wages in contrast to other groups. González (1974) suggested that Chicanas are doubly discriminated against and members of an ethnic or cultural minority and as females. Nieto-Gómez (1975), in a report on Chicanas in the labor force, described Mexican American women as primarily poorly paid workers with little or no job opportunities. She concluded that racist and sexist stereotypes worked as powerful social barriers, reinforcing the image of Chicanas as nurturing, passive and submissive women, good only for menial employment. Nieto-Gómez concluded that much more data were necessary in order to understand fully the employment situation of Mexican American women.

In relation to the specific situation of Hispanic mothers, extraordinarily little research has been undertaken to study their employment experiences. Tienda (1982) reported, however, that disproportionately low labor force participation rates are found among women with young children and among those who speak Spanish in contrast to other women without young children or who speak English predominantly. A correlary to this result was presented by Polizer and Ramírez (1975), who reported that there was relative downgrading by both Mexican American and Anglo 3rd through 12th graders of English spoken with a Spanish accent.

Thus, self images among Hispanics are often linked to the impact of external barriers to social and economic advancement. This seems to be particularly true of Hispanic women.

Summary

In this review of related research on the aspirations of Hispanic women for achievement in education and the labor force in relation to her role as wife and mother, it can be seen that social scientists have often relied on conceptually and methodologically limited studies of women and of Hispanic culture. In general, women were portrayed early as actually being, or at least as perceiving themselves, as biologically inferior to men. The ultimate reason for being a woman was her maternal function which would symbolize the final resolution of her penis envy. During this era of the preeminance of Freudian theory, women's educational and professional achievement motivations were considered as abnormal masculine behaviors and dismissed as such. The culturalist movement reinterpreted women's reproductive power as an object of envy on the part of men, suggesting that men's consuming drive to achieve in the world was actually a reaction on their part to this feminine power.

More recently, women's achievement motivation has been re-examined more thoroughly. Although the presence of their motivation to achieve outside the home has been acknowledged, the core of female motivation is still viewed as psychologically rooted in their primordial affiliative needs and as a consequence of their external locus of control, the biological roots of which are assumed to be determined at birth as a result of their gender. This basic affiliative needs which motivates a woman is interpreted as a possible obstacle, holding her back and forming the basis for her fear of success.

Hispanic women, in particular, have been portrayed as essentially non-achievement oriented. In relation to their cultural background, their reason for existence has been interpreted as being a mother and a subservient wife. She has been portrayed as the major socializing agence of the family, and as dominated by a culture which by reason of its values works to constrict the occupational and intellectual pursuits of its children and to foment inflexible sex role expectations in them.

In a parallel process to the expanded research on women, research on Hispanics has also experienced a significant revitalization in the past 15 years. Other variables affecting the achievement motivations of Hispanic women have been studied, including the effects of socioeconomic status, language differences, discrimination, and the stress of immigration. Examples related to Hispanic women's attempts to achieve in the world of work include the consequences of combined prejudice faced by them in the labor market such as lower pay, limited opportunities for advancement, higher unemployment rates and poor role models in the mass media.

Very little is known about the achieving Hispanic mother. Although disproportionately low labor force participation rates have been found among Spanish-speaking women with young children, other studies on Hispanic mothers have documented that they are definitely motivated to better their economic situation through school and employment. Additionally, some Hispanic mothers are more motivated to work than are comparable Anglo mothers.

One concludes from this review of the literature that there is too little information available about the specifics of young Hispanic women's achievement motivations. Basic hypothesis-generating research is critically needed to explore their general characteristics and their psychological experiences, including their attitudes about family roles and family formation, as well as their aspirations and expectations for education and employment. It was with this intent that the following research study was designed and implemented.

Report # 1

YOUNG HISPANICS IN THE UNITED STATES -- THEIR ASPIRATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Findings from Two National Surveys

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III. HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The traditional approach to social science research entails the assumption of null hypotheses or no significant differences among the groups being studied. The review of the literature on Hispanic women, however, suggests certain directional hypotheses about differences among Hispanic, Black and White adolescents which will be summarized here.

A. Sample #1 (National Longitudinal Survey - youth aged 14-22)

Marriage

1. Hispanics will value marriage more, plan to marry earlier and be married more frequently than Whites who will rank higher than Blacks.

Children

2. Blacks will have more children than Hispanics who will have more than Whites.
3. Hispanics will have more positive attitudes toward large family size (in terms of the ideal, desired and expected number of children) than Blacks who will have more positive attitudes toward large family size than Whites.
4. Hispanics will expect to have their first/next child earlier than Blacks who will expect their sooner than Whites.

Family and Sex Role Attitudes

5. Hispanics will be more traditional than Whites who will be more so than Blacks.

School Enrollment Status

6. Whites will be enrolled more frequently and at higher levels than Blacks who will rank higher than Hispanics.

Employment Status

7. Whites will be employed at a higher level than Hispanics who will be employed more than Blacks.

Educational Aspirations

8. Whites will have higher educational aspirations than Blacks who will have higher aspirations than Hispanics.
9. Whites will have more positive expectations about their ability to achieve their educational aspirations than Blacks who will rank higher than Hispanics.

Occupational Aspirations

10. Whites will have higher occupational aspirations at age 35 than Blacks who will rank higher than Hispanics.
11. Whites will have more positive expectations about their ability to achieve their occupational aspirations than Blacks who will rank higher than Hispanics.

B. Sample #2 (High School & Beyond - enrolled high school students, Sophomores and Seniors)

Marriage

12. Hispanics will value marriage more and plan to marry earlier than Whites who will rank higher than Blacks.

Family Orientation

13. Hispanics will have a stronger family orientation than Whites who will have a stronger orientation than Blacks.

Children

14. Hispanics will value children more, expect to have their

first child earlier and expect to have more children than Blacks who will rank higher than Whites.

15. Blacks will be more accepting of the idea of having a child if they were not married than will Hispanics who will rank higher than Whites.

Sex Education

16. Whites have have had a sex education course or program more often than Blacks who will have taken it more than Hispanics.
17. Blacks will be more aware of special programs in their schools for pregnant girls or mothers and will have participated more than Whites who will be more aware but will not have participated as much as Hispanics.
18. Whites will know more about birth control methods than Blacks who will rank higher than Hispanics.
19. There will be no significant differences among the three racial/ethnic groups in terms of the primary source of information about birth control methods.

Educational Aspirations

20. Whites will have higher educational aspirations than will Blacks who will rank higher than Hispanics.
21. Whites will have more positive expectations about their ability to achieve their educational goals than will Blacks who will rank higher than Hispanics.

It seems necessary to reiterate that the above hypothese reflect the predominant social science view of Hispanics and Blacks from a deficiency perspective. Several analyses or research studies discussed in the literature review suggest that the hypotheses will not hold when submitted to empirical verification on a large-scale sample.

IV. PROCEDURES

This research study entailed a secondary analysis of the findings from two national surveys of young people in the United States. The first drew on the data set of the 1979 National Longitudinal Survey of Labor Force Behavior, which was sponsored by the U. S. Department of Labor under the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act of 1977. Coordinated by the Center for Human Resources Research at Ohio State University, the National Longitudinal Survey (NLS) involved a national probability sample of 12,686 adolescent and young adults aged 14 to 22. Questions were oriented to employment issues but also included psychological variables presumed to be of relevance to future aspirations and potential for employment. Minority and low-income youth were oversampled in order to ensure that their experiences would be included and analyzable. The sample included 2,002 Hispanic youth, of whom 1,112 were of Mexican origin or Chicanos, 308 were Puerto Rican, 112 were Cuban, and 247 were of other Hispanic or Spanish origin.

The second data base is that of the High School and Beyond Survey. The High School and Beyond (HSB) research project was sponsored by the National Center for Educational Statistics of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and was administered by the National Opinion Research Center at the University of Chicago. It is a national longitudinal study of the cohorts of 1980 high school sophomores and seniors in the United States. The design oversampled Hispanic students and private schools to ensure their representation in sufficient numbers to permit statistical analyses of their responses. Its primary focus was on educational factors, but it also included information relevant to family and employment issues. The goal was to interview 36 seniors and 36 sophomores in 1,122 schools. Data were collected in the spring of 1980; the realization of the student sample was 84%. Thus, the total sample of students was 58,270 from 1,015 schools across the country. There were 6,695 Hispanic students in the HSB survey, of whom 4,016 identified themselves as of Chicano or Mexican origin, 640 as Puerto Rican, 677 as Cuban, and 1,365 as of other Hispanic, Latino or Spanish origin.

Cross-tabulations of key variables addressing issues of family formation, educational attainment and occupation aspirations by racial/ethnic group and gender were performed for both samples. There are thus six comparison groups: Hispanic females, Hispanic males, non-Hispanic Black females, non-Hispanic Black males, non-Hispanic White females and non-Hispanic White males.* Because of the descriptive nature of these findings and their relevance for hypothesis generation, careful attention was paid to non-responses on each item. Thus, the percentages reported in the tables are based on the total sample size of each racial/ethnic by gender group. The χ^2 for each table were calculated, of course, only for those individuals who responded.

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*In the case of the NLS, the category White includes all non-Hispanic Whites and other groups who are not Black.

Reliability analysis of key scales and composite variables were obtained, in addition to correlations among major variables. Regression procedures using hierarchical inclusion of variables was utilized to assess the relative impact of racial/ethnic group membership, gender and socioeconomic status on the hypotheses regarding family formation, education and employment. Additional information concerning definition of group membership and development of composite variables is discussed in the results section of each sample, as well as being noted on the tables in question.

V. ASPIRATIONS OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN THE UNITED STATES: RESULTS OF CROSS CULTURAL COMPARISONS FROM TWO NATIONAL DATA BASES

A. The National Longitudinal Survey of Labor Force Behavior

Of the 12,686 interviews analyzed in this study, there were 1,003 Hispanic females (mean age 17.7) and 999 Hispanic males (mean age 17.6), with 1,568 non-Hispanic Black females (mean age 17.8) and 1,606 non-Hispanic Black males (mean age 17.7) in contrast to 3,717 non-Hispanic White and Other females (mean age 17.8) and 3,793 non-Hispanic White and Other males (mean age 18.0. Hispanic and Black families tended to be more concentrated in lower socioeconomic status levels than Whites, and Hispanics were slightly younger than Blacks but considerably more so than Whites. See Tables 1, 2 and 3 for more information on these general characteristics.

Marriage. Hispanic and White females tend to be married more than the other groups, although the three female racial/ethnic groups are similar in their marriage dissolution rates (see Table 4). The male pattern is similar, except that Hispanic males have a higher marriage dissolution rate. In terms of their expectations about being married in five years, young men are more negative than young women, although this is less true for Hispanics than the others (see Table 5). In contrast to much of the social science literature on Hispanics, young White females aspire to marry considerably more than young Hispanic women, but there does not appear to be much difference in the ages at which they desire to marry (see Table 6). Black patterns are markedly diffe-

TABLE 1

Sample from the National Longitudinal Survey of Labor Force Behavior (1979)

Hispanic		Black		White	
Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
1,003	999	1,568	1,606	3,717	3,793

Note: The sample includes Hispanic youth, non-Hispanic Blacks and non-Hispanic Whites and others.

TABLE 2

Age Groupings[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Young teens 14-17	495 (49.4)	486 (48.6)	725 (46.2)	764 (47.6)	1,522 (40.9)	1,590 (41.9)
Older teens 18-22	508 (50.6)	513 (51.4)	843 (53.8)	842 (52.4)	2,195 (59.1)	2,203 (58.1)

[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

TABLE 3

Socioeconomic Status of Respondents[a]

Level	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
1	47 (4.7)	53 (5.3)	89 (5.7)	70 (4.4)	441 (11.9)	488 (12.9)
2	120 (12.0)	121 (12.1)	147 (9.4)	162 (10.1)	961 (25.9)	931 (24.5)
3	341 (34.0)	326 (32.6)	525 (33.5)	599 (37.3)	1,366 (36.8)	1,449 (38.2)
4	275 (27.4)	276 (27.6)	448 (28.6)	411 (25.6)	579 (15.6)	522 (13.8)
n (%) of response	776 (77.4)	783 (78.4)	1,242 (79.2)	1,209 (75.3)	3,390 (91.2)	3,347 (88.2)

Note: This variable was computed on the basis of fathers' occupations as reported by respondents, except in the case when the father's occupation was missing, and the mother's occupation was utilized if available. 1 = professional & technical; 2 = administration, sales & clerical; 3 = crafts & operatives; 4 = laborers & services.

[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

TABLE 4

Marital Status[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Presently married	167 (16.7)	78 (7.8)	119 (7.6)	52 (3.2)	615 (16.5)	321 (8.5)
Widowed, divorced or separated	29 (2.9)	12 (1.2)	40 (2.6)	9 (0.6)	105 (2.8)	20 (0.5)
Never married	807 (80.5)	909 (91.0)	1409 (89.9)	1544 (96.2)	2997 (80.6)	3451 (91.0)

$\chi^2 = 410.679$, with 10 d.f. $p < 0.0$

TABLE 5

Does R Expect to Be Married in 5 Years[a].

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Yes	377 (37.6)	404 (40.4)	638 (40.7)	540 (33.6)	1657 (44.6)	1458 (38.4)
No	355 (35.4)	426 (42.6)	693 (44.2)	920 (57.3)	1179 (31.7)	1806 (47.6)
n of response	732 (73.0)	830 (83.0)	1331 (84.9)	1460 ( )	2836 ( )	3264 ( )

$\chi^2 = 211.370$, with 5 d.f. $p < 0.0$

[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

TABLE 6

Age When Desires to Marry

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Less than 20	62 (6.2)	31 (3.1)	69 (4.4)	39 (2.4)	239 (6.4)	103 (2.7)
20 to 24	448 (44.7)	407 (40.7)	603 (38.5)	504 (31.4)	1709 (46.0)	1484 (39.1)
25 to 29	242 (24.1)	367 (36.7)	506 (32.3)	631 (39.3)	844 (22.7)	1404 (37.0)
30 or older	35 (3.5)	77 (7.7)	139 (8.9)	270 (16.8)	116 (3.1)	321 (8.5)
Never	14 (1.4)	22 (2.2)	82 (5.2)	85 (5.3)	70 (1.9)	105 (2.8)
n of response	801 (79.9)	904 (90.5)	1399 (89.2)	1529 (95.2)	2978 (80.1)	3417 (90.1)

$\chi^2 = 683.297$, with 20 d.f. $p < 0.0$

[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

rent, however, in that fewer Black young people plan to marry, and there is a larger percentage who plan to marry late than in the other two racial/ethnic groups.

Children. Black females report having had children more frequently (23.7%), with Hispanic females (16.4%) being between them and White females (12.5%); Table 7 shows the number of children they reported having had. The presence of children at home undoubtedly indicates heavy responsibilities for these young women: Hispanic mothers 15.2%, Black mothers 20.6%, and White mothers 11.6% (see Table 8). A comparison of Tables 7 and 8 suggests that young Hispanic and White females may tend to keep their babies at home to a slightly larger degree than do young Black women.

The NLS interview asked standard questions about family size preferences, including the young person's perception of the ideal family size, her or his desired number of children, and the number of children that he or she actually expected to have. The mean response and standard deviations for these three questions are presented in Tables 9, 10 and 11. Hispanics and Blacks tend to idealize larger sized families than do Whites, although the men in both of the former groups had higher means than the females. However, Black females had the lowest means of any group on both the desired and expected number of children, while Hispanic males had the highest. The responses of Hispanic females tended to be the middle rank of the groups.

A compilation and comparison of these three questions by frequency of response documents some interesting difference between

TABLE 7

Number of Children R Has Had[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
1	109 (10.9)	48 (4.8)	266 (17.0)	109 (6.8)	356 (9.6)	173 (4.6)
2	45 (4.5)	14 (1.4)	75 (4.8)	23 (1.4)	85 (2.3)	33 (0.9)
3+	8 (0.8)	1 (1.0)	25 (1.6)	5 (0.3)	21 (0.6)	4 (0.1)
n of response[b]	162 (16.2)	63 (6.3)	366 (23.3)	137 (8.5)	462 (12.2)	210 (5.6)

TABLE 8

Number of Children at Home[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
0	851 (84.8)	947 (94.8)	1245 (79.4)	1558 (97.0)	3287 (88.4)	3615 (95.3)
1	101 (10.1)	36 (3.6)	234 (14.9)	37 (2.3)	338 (9.1)	147 (3.9)
2	43 (4.3)	15 (1.5)	70 (4.5)	8 (0.5)	73 (2.0)	27 (0.4)
3+	8 (0.8)	1 (0.1)	19 (1.2)	3 (0.2)	19 (0.5)	4 (0.1)

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[a] Figure in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

TABLE 9

Ideal Number of Children (means)[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
mean	3.066	3.233	3.155	3.311	2.767	2.729
n	1,000	996	1,557	1,590	3,703	3,780
SD	1.367	1.440	1.525	1.615	1.134	1.155

TABLE 10

Desired Number of Children (means)[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
mean	2.617	2.854	2.323	2.658	2.552	2.432
n	995	986	1,561	1,589	3,692	3,761
SD	1.498	1.504	1.587	1.671	1.517	1.443

TABLE 11

Expected Number of Children (means)[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
mean	2.424	2.783	2.017	2.630	2.291	2.319
n	992	976	1,544	1,572	3,672	3,704
SD	1.574	1.538	1.544	1.724	1.362	1.289

[a] Percentage of response to these items was at least 97.7% or higher for all groups.

young women and men in the racial/ethnic groups (see Table 12). For example, although young Hispanic females tend to idealize larger sized families (3 or more children) considerably more than young White females, they do not differ so markedly in terms of the number of children they actually expect to have. This effect is even more true for Black females. However, young Hispanic and Black men seem to favor larger sized families to a much greater degree than do Hispanic and Black women.

In terms of the timing of their families, all of the young women expected to have their first or next child sooner than the men: Hispanic and White females were almost exactly equal, prefering to wait slightly longer than Black females, whereas young Black males expected to have their first or next child sooner than did Hispanic males but not so late as White males (see Table 13 for the mean responses and Table 14 for a grouping of the responses).

Family Role Attitudes. There were eight items in the NLS questionnaire designed to test the attitudes of young people about sex roles or family roles. Reliability texts indicated some difficulties in utilizing the eight items together as a scale, in that the Cronbach alpha was only .70. The five items which are here labeled as "male privilege" did not tend to correlate well with the three items labeled "equal responsibility." Therefore, the scale was separate into the two parts, with an improved alpha of .78 for the "male privilege" variable; however, the alpha for the "equal responsibility" variable was an unaccep-

Attitudes about Family Size: Ideal, Desired & Expected Number of Children (f and %)[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
Number of Children[b]	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
0						
ideal	10 (1.0)	7 (0.7)	17 (1.1)	19 (1.2)	21 (0.6)	41 (1.1)
desired	56 (5.6)	43 (4.4)	161 (10.3)	127 (8.0)	262 (7.1)	314 (8.3)
expected	86 (8.7)	57 (5.8)	265 (17.2)	151 (9.6)	367 (10.0)	351 (9.5)
1 - 2						
ideal	410 (41.0)	343 (34.4)	616 (39.6)	551 (34.7)	1945 (52.5)	1992 (52.7)
desired	528 (53.1)	426 (43.2)	889 (57.0)	748 (47.1)	1975 (53.5)	2068 (55.0)
expected	518 (52.2)	411 (42.1)	830 (53.8)	696 (44.3)	2025 (55.1)	2049 (55.3)
3 - 4						
ideal	483 (48.3)	513 (51.5)	717 (46.1)	745 46.9)	1521 (40.2)	1527 (41.2)
desired	344 (34.6)	429 (43.5)	411 (26.3)	583 (36.7)	1202 (32.6)	1188 (31.6)
expected	322 (32.5)	423 (43.3)	370 (24.0)	578 (36.8)	1091 (29.7)	1149 (31.0)
5 or more						
ideal	97 (9.7)	133 (13.4)	207 (13.3)	275 (17.3)	210 (5.7)	226 (6.0)
desired	67 (6.7)	88 (8.9)	100 (6.4)	131 (8.2)	253 (6.9)	191 (5.1)
expected	66 (6.7)	85 (8.7)	79 (5.1)	147 (9.4)	189 (5.1)	155 (4.2)

Ideal $\chi^2 = 466.921$, 15 d.f. $p < 0.0$ Expected $\chi^2 = 307.001$, 15 d.f. $p < 0.0$

Desired $\chi^2 = 165.837$, 15 d.f. $p < 0.0$

[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

[b] Percent of response to these three items was at least 97.7% or higher for all groups.

TABLE 13

Number of Years until Expects 1st/Next Child (means)[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
mean	5.712	6.297	5.494	5.582	5.706	6.473
n	831	849	1,157	1,327	3,049	3,200
(%)	(82.9)	(85.0)	(73.8)	(82.6)	(82.0)	(84.4)
SD	3.080	3.877	3.254	3.675	3.164	3.488

TABLE 14

Number of Years until Expects 1st/Next Child (f and &)[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
1-3	209	190	341	445	776	591
	(20.8)	(19.0)	(21.7)	(27.7)	(20.9)	(15.6)
4-6	339	332	482	455	1,300	1,282
	(33.8)	(33.2)	(30.7)	(28.3)	(35.8)	(33.8)
7-9	160	154	155	206	528	623
	(16.0)	(15.4)	(9.9)	(12.8)	(14.2)	(16.4)
10+	123	173	179	221	445	704
	(12.3)	(17.3)	(11.4)	(13.8)	(12.0)	(18.6)
n (%) of response	831	849	1,157	1,327	3,049	3,200
	(82.9)	(85.0)	(73.8)	(82.6)	(82.0)	(84.4)

χ^2 = 207.431, 15 d.f. $p < 0.0$

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[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

tably low .32. Thus, one clear result is that more attention needs to be direct at effectively measuring sex role attitudes of young people.

However, the distribution of responses for each item provided some interesting findings about female/male differences among the racial/ethnic groups, and therefore, they have been presented in their entirety (see Tables 15 and 17 for mean responses, while Tables 16 and 18 provide frequency summaries of agreement and disagreement). While it is true that Hispanic females tended to be more in agreement with "traditional" roles of women than Blacks who ranked slightly higher than White females, the most dramatic finding was the wide gaps in agreement between sexes. This is particular obvious on the fourth male privilege item ("It is much better for everyone concerned if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family"), in that the gap ranged from a high of 16.2% of disagreement between Hispanic males and females to 13.4% for Whites and 19.6% for Blacks. Similarly, although the mean response to this item for Hispanic and White females differed only by 0.2 points, the division of agreement among Hispanic females was much more noticeable, in that this was the only occasion in which less than 60% of a racial/ethnic by gender group responded in one direction or another. Another interesting result was that on the "equal responsibility" items, there was no pattern of consistent "traditional" or "liberal" responses among the young men: Black men were most favorable on two responses, but lowest on another, while Hispanics were highest on one, in the

TABLE 15

Family Role Attitudes: Male Privilege (means)

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
A woman's place is in the home, not in the office or shop.						
mean	1.871	2.420	1.783	2.167	1.784	2.227
n	999	990	1,558	1,594	3,702	3,755
SD	.866	.855	.804	.828	.781	.692
A wife who carries out her full family responsibilities doesn't have time for outside employment.						
mean	2.244	2.543	2.063	2.367	2.056	2.341
n	997	991	1,551	1,592	3,700	3,762
SD	.810	.765	.749	.757	.715	.692
The employment of wives leads to more juvenile delinquency.						
mean	2.212	2.327	2.049	2.166	2.034	2.802
n	984	978	1,543	1,587	3,676	3,716
SD	.801	.794	.737	.757	.748	.747
It is much better for everyone concerned if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family.						
mean	2.421	2.733	2.317	2.536	2.227	2.518
n	986	978	1,552	1,589	3,683	3,748
SD	.868	.830	.830	.842	.807	.756
Women are much happier if they stay at home and take care of their children.						
mean	2.343	2.600	2.171	2.377	2.101	2.305
n	985	957	1,543	1,564	3,650	3,636
SD	.817	.760	.768	.729	.713	.665

TABLE 16

Family Role Attitudes: Male Privilege (f and %)[a]

Item[b]	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
A woman's place is in in home, not in the office or shop.						
Disagree	797 (79.5)	587 (58.8)	1,333 (85.0)	1,154 (71.9)	3,151 (84.8)	2,613 (68.9)
Agree	202 (20.1)	402 (40.2)	225 (14.3)	440 (27.4)	551 (14.8)	1,142 (30.1)
χ^2 = 507.460, 5 d.f., $p < 0.0$						
A wife who carries out her full family responsibilities doesn't have time for outside employment.						
Disagree	677 (67.5)	520 (52.1)	1,218 (77.7)	990 (61.6)	2,938 (79.0)	2,484 (65.5)
Agree	320 (31.9)	471 (47.1)	333 (21.2)	602 (37.5)	762 (20.5)	1,278 (33.7)
χ^2 = 431.933, 5 d.f., $p < 0.0$						
The employment of wives leads to more juvenile delinquency.						
Disagree	678 (67.6)	624 (62.5)	1,205 (76.8)	1,151 (71.7)	2,869 (77.2)	2,595 (68.4)
Agree	306 (30.5)	354 (35.4)	338 (21.6)	436 (27.1)	807 (21.7)	1,132 (29.8)
χ^2 = 139.878, 5 d.f., $p < 0.0$						
It is much better for everyone concerned if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family.						
Disagree	546 (54.4)	382 (38.2)	946 (60.3)	798 (49.7)	2,429 (65.3)	1,950 (51.4)
Agree	440 (43.9)	596 (59.7)	606 (38.6)	791 (49.3)	1,254 (33.7)	1,798 (47.4)
χ^2 = 323.184, 5 d.f., $p < 0.0$						

TABLE 16 (con.)

Family Role Attitudes: Male Privilege (f and %)[a]

Item[b]	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Women are much happier if they stay at home and take care of their children.						
Disagree	608 (60.6)	444 (44.4)	1,100 (70.2)	936 (58.3)	2,793 (75.1)	2,414 (63.6)
Agree	377 (37.6)	513 (51.4)	443 (28.3)	628 (39.1)	857 (23.1)	1,222 (32.2)

$\chi^2 = 281.121$, 5 d.f., $p < 0.0$

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[a] Figures in parentheses= % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

TABLE 17

Family Role Attitudes: Equal Responsibilities (means)

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
A working wife feels more useful than one who doesn't hold a job.						
mean	2.756	2.737	2.767	2.895	2.710	2.802
n	988	972	1,548	1,588	3,678	3,716
SD	.794	.724	.792	.744	.812	.692
Employment of both parents is necessary to keep up with the high cost of living.						
mean	2.942	2.833	3.094	3.029	2.839	2,720
n	990	987	1,553	1,596	3,678	3,753
SD	.785	.787	.752	.772	.768	.761
Men should share the work around the house with women, such as doing dishes, cleaning, and so forth.						
mean	3.109	2.915	3.185	2.885	3.172	2.902
n	999	992	1,561	1,597	3,698	3,762
SD	.756	.731	.744	.769	0.760	0.712

TABLE 18

Family Role Attitudes: Equal Responsibility (f and %)[a]

Item[b]	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
A working wife feels more useful than one who doesn't hold a job.						
Disagree	357 (35.6)	332 (33.2)	515 (32.8)	417 (26.0)	1,421 (38.2)	1,090 (28.7)
Agree	631 (62.9)	640 (64.1)	1,033 (65.9)	1,171 (72.9)	2,257 (60.7)	2,626 (69.2)
χ^2 = 112.906, 5 d.f., $p < 0.0$						
Employment of both parents is necessary to keep up with the high cost of living.						
Disagree	273 (27.2)	320 (32.0)	289 (18.4)	358 (22.3)	1,180 (31.7)	1,455 (38.4)
Agree	717 (71.5)	667 (66.8)	1,264 (80.6)	1,238 (77.1)	2,498 (67.2)	2,298 (60.6)
χ^2 = 281.121, 5 d.f., $p < 0.0$						
Men should share the work around the house with women, such as doing dishes, cleaning, and so forth.						
Disagree	179 (17.8)	214 (21.4)	228 (14.5)	396 (24.7)	595 (16.0)	786 (20.7)
Agree	820 (81.8)	778 (77.9)	1,333 (85.0)	1,201 (74.8)	3,103 (83.5)	2,976 (78.5)
χ^2 = 88.519, 5 d.f., $p < 0.0$						

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[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

[b] Percent of response to these three items was at least 97.3% for all groups.

middle on another and lowest on a third; and Whites were never most accepting, but rather the "most traditional" on two items and lowest on a third. The female means responses, in contrast, were very similar. In general, there seemed to be less disagreement between the sexes on these items.

Education. Of the sample, Whites had a lower percentage enrolled in high school: White females 38.1% and White males 38.9%, in contrast to Black females 46.5%, Black males 47.5%, Hispanic females 44.9% and Hispanic males 44.1%. However, they had the highest percentages enrolled in college: White females 15.3%, White males 14.2%, Black females 11.6%, Black males 8.2%, Hispanic females 10.5%, and Hispanic males 9.0%. See Table 19 for an outline of five educational characteristics, which tend to indicate that Hispanics as a group are at significantly high risk of dropping out from high school.

Respondents who were not currently enrolled in school were asked why they left; Whites reported a higher percentage of having received a degree. The particular vunerability of young Hispanic and Black mothers to pressures of motherhood and family responsibilities is clearly shown, in that more than one out of five reported having dropped out of school due to getting married, a pregnancy or home responsibilits (see Table 20).

The NLS data set allows one to compare the aspirations of young people for educational attainment with what they expect to occur (see Table 21). Responses of young Hispanics show their awareness of the drop-out problem for their ethnic group; surprisingly high percentages of both young women and men do not

TABLE 19

Educational Profile: Five Characteristics

	Hispanic		Black		White	
Characteristic[a]	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
1. Highest grade completed						
mean	9.872	9.883	10.484	10.196	10.869	10.594
n	988	983	1,547	1,582	3,663	3,744
(%)	(98.5)	(98.4)	(98.7)	(98.5)	(98.5)	(98.7)
SD	2.209	3.461	1.902	1.871	2.421	2.020
2. High School diploma or equivalent: Yes						
n	284	258	569	502	1,772	1,648
(%)	(28.3)	(25.8)	(36.3)	(31.3)	(47.7)	(43.4)
% of Total N answering this item	51.1	49.1	49.9	47.1	59.5	56.9
χ^2 = 269.196, 5 d.f., p 0.0						
3. Currently enrolled in H. S.: Yes[b]						
n	447	437	728	761	1,414	1,474
(%)	(44.6)	(43.7)	(46.4)	(47.4)	(38.0)	(38.9)
χ^2 = 75.324, 5 d.f., $p < 0.0$						
4. Dropout indicator: n (%) of potential dropouts[c]	272 (27.1)	304 (30.4)	271 (17.3)	343 (21.4)	531 (14.3)	671 (17.7)
5. Currently enrolled in college: Yes						
n	102	90	182	132	570	539
(%)	(10.5)	(9.0)	(11.6)	(8.2)	(15.3)	(14.2)
% of Total N answering this item	16.1	13.6	19.6	12.7	23.6	20.1
χ^2 = 13.88, 5 d.f., $p < 0.0$						

[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

[b] Percentages of response to this item was at least 99.1% or higher for all groups.

[c] The Dropout Indicator is calculated by subtracting the number of respondents with a high school diploma or equivalent and the number currently enrolled in high school from

TABLE 20

Why Did R Leave School (R's Not Currently Enrolled)[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Received degree	123 (30.8)	123 (31.0)	279 (47.0)	270 (44.1)	885 (54.6)	798 (49.6)
Family issues[b]	88 (22.0)	34 (8.6)	128 (21.6)	18 (2.9)	213 (13.1)	38 (2.4)
School problems	57 (14.3)	98 (24.7)	76 (12.8)	153 (25.0)	224 (13.8)	358 (22.3)
Economic-occupational	60 (15.0)	85 (21.4)	50 (8.4)	96 (15.7)	131 (8.1)	243 (15.1)
Other	72 (18.0)	57 (14.4)	60 (10.1)	75 (12.3)	168 (10.4)	171 (10.6)
n of response[c]	400 (39.9)	397 (39.7)	593 (37.8)	612 (38.1)	1621 (43.6)	1608 (42.4)

$\chi^2 = 509.637$, 20 d.f., $p < 0.0$

[a] Figure in parentheses = % of non-enrolled respondents who answered this item.

[b] Getting married, pregnancy or home responsibilities.

[c] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

TABLE 21

Educational Aspirations and Expectations

	Hispanic					Black			
	Females		Males			Females		Males	
	wants[b]	expects[c]	wants	expects		wants	expects	wants	expects
1st to 11th	43 (4.3)	114 (11.4)	58 (5.8)	127 (12.7)	1st to 11th	17 (1.1)	66 (4.2)	23 (1.4)	104 (6.5)
HS diploma	344 (34.3)	358 (35.7)	378 (37.8)	381 (38.1)	HS diploma	517 (33.0)	596 (38.0)	620 (38.6)	674 (42.0)
Some college	161 (16.1)	197 (19.6)	130 (13.0)	159 (15.9)	Some college	210 (13.4)	285 (18.2)	165 (10.3)	224 (13.9)
B.A. degree	325 (32.4)	235 (23.4)	278 (27.8)	204 (20.4)	B.A. degree	550 (35.1)	445 (28.4)	570 (35.5)	442 (27.5)
Post B.A. or Master's	60 (6.0)	42 (4.2)	67 (6.7)	55 (5.5)	Post B.A. or Master's	121 (7.7)	88 (5.6)	105 (6.5)	65 (4.0)
Profes. degree	62 (6.2)	39 (3.9)	77 (7.7)	50 (5.0)	Profes. degree	149 (9.5)	78 (5.0)	119 (7.4)	79 (4.9)
n of response	995 (99.2)	985 (98.2)	988 (98.9)	976 (97.7)	n of response[b]	1564 (99.7)	1558 (99.4)	1602 (99.8)	1588 (98.9)

TABLE 21 (con.)

Educational Aspirations and Expectations

	White			
	Females		Males	
	wants[b]	expects[c]	wants	expects
1st to 11th	67 (1.8)	255 (6.9)	88 (2.3)	317 (8.4)
HS diploma	1242 (33.4)	1363 (36.7)	1359 (35.8)	1419 (37.4)
Some college	622 (16.7)	737 (19.8)	447 (11.8)	561 (14.8)
B.A. degree	1210 (32.6)	949 (25.5)	1217 (32.1)	985 (26.0)
Post B.A. or Master's	286 (7.7)	216 (5.8)	279 (7.4)	215 (5.7)
Professional degree	271 (7.3)	172 (4.6)	387 (10.2)	269 (7.1)
n (%) of response	3698 (99.5)	3692 (99.3)	3777 (99.6)	3766 (99.3)

[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

[b] Highest grade or year of regular school would like to complete.
$\chi^2 = 206.181$, 25 d.f. $p < 0.0$

[c] Highest grade or year of school that think will actually complete.
$\chi^2 = 195.829$, 25 d.f. $p < 0.0$

expect to graduate from high school, in spite of the fact that they aspire to higher levels of education. In terms of aspiring to college training, Hispanic females are slightly lower than Whites but do not differ from them to the extent that young Black women do, in that the Black females have both aspirations and expectations that approach and exceed those of White males.

Employment and Occupations. A composite employment status variable documents the higher unemployment rates of Black and Hispanic youth and also shows that more young Hispanic women are "keeping house" than the other two female groups (see Table 22). However, in terms of their occupational aspirations, an overwhelming majority of the young women in all three racial/ethnic groups state that they plan to be working when they reach age 35. Black women were the most work-oriented, and in spite of the social science image of Hispanic women as homemakers, they scored slightly lower on the choice of marriage and family than did White females (see Table 23). In spite of some possible concerns about achieving the level of education they aspire to, almost half of the young Hispanic women in the NLS sample hope to work as professionals or higher level technicians by their 35th year (see Table 24). It is also interesting to note even higher percentages of Black and White women with the same aspirations, all three groups of young women reporting a higher percentage than the young men, who had a larger percentage of response to managerial and administrative work than did the young women.

Not surprisingly, large percentages of Hispanic and Black women indicated that they aspired to do clerical and unskilled

TABLE 22

Employment Status Recode Variable[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Working	325 (32.4)	425 (42.5)	389 (24.8)	512 (31.9)	1625 (43.7)	1703 (44.9)
With job (not working)	12 (1.2)	12 (1.2)	16 (1.0)	21 (1.3)	58 (1.6)	63 (1.7)
Unemployed	137 (13.7)	162 (16.2)	360 (23.0)	369 (11.6)	430 (11.6)	409 (10.8)
Keeping house	112 (11.2)	3 (0.3)	107 (6.8)	4 (0.2)	241 (6.5)	6 (0.2)
Going to school	336 (33.5)	299 (29.9)	510 (32.5)	450 (28.0)	891 (24.0)	901 (23.8)
Unable to work	2 (0.2)	3 (0.3)	6 (0.4)	6 (0.4)	19 (0.5)	5 (0.1)
Other	55 (5.5)	42 (4.2)	99 (6.3)	81 (5.0)	135 (3.6)	127 (3.3)
No response	24 (2.4)	53 (5.3)	81 (5.2)	162 (10.1)	318 (8.6)	579 (15.3)

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[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

TABLE 23

R's Aspirations for Age 35[a]

(Females Only)

	Hispanic	Black	White
Work	680 (67.8)	1254 (80.0)	2477 (66.6)
Marriage and family	242 (24.1)	176 (11.2)	933 (25.1)
Other	25 (2.5)	82 (5.2)	136 (3.7)
n of response[b]	947 (94.4)	1512 (96.4)	3546 (95.4)

χ^2 = 1,472.413, 10 d.f. $p < 0.0$

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[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total female respondents in that racial/ethnic group.

TABLE 24

Occupational Aspirations at Age 35[a]

Census Category	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Professional, technical	310 (47.7)	318 (38.9)	628 (51.3)	546 (40.5)	1307 (55.3)	1321 (42.2)
Managers, administrators	49 (7.5)	99 (12.1)	77 (6.3)	204 (15.1)	196 (8.3)	427 (13.6)
Sales workers	19 (2.9)	5 (0.6)	15 (1.2)	12 (0.9)	33 (1.4)	51 (1.6)
Clerical, unskilled workers	157 (24.2)	15 (1.8)	274 (22.4)	46 (3.4)	380 (16.1)	38 (1.2)
Craftsmen	10 (1.5)	214 (26.2)	15 (1.2)	277 (20.6)	67 (2.8)	745 (23.8)
Operatives	11 (1.7)	69 (8.4)	36 (2.9)	139 (10.3)	59 (2.5)	217 (6.9)
Laborers, including farm	5 (0.5)	22 (2.2)	4 (0.3)	31 (1.9)	24 (0.6)	70 (1.8)
Farmers & farm managers	-	16 (2.0)	-	7 (0.5)	17 (0.7)	85 (2.7)
Service workers including private household	81 (8.1)	42 (4.2)	167 (10.7)	42 (2.6)	263 (7.1)	128 (3.4)
Military service	7 (0.7)	17 (1.7)	9 (5.7)	42 (2.6)	15 (4.0)	52 (1.4)

χ^2 = 2828.172, 50 d.f. $p < 0.0$

[a] Figure in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

work, and similar percentages of Hispanic and Black males (as well as White males) aspired to craftsmen positions -- occupations which currently are typical of Hispanic and Black adults.

When questioned as to the chances of their attaining their occupational goal, Hispanic women reported "good" or "fair" in approximately the same percentages as the other five groups. However, young Hispanic women had the lowest percentage replying "excellent" and the highest percentage replying "poor" (Table 25).

Regression analyses: The relative effect of race and gender on aspirations of young people. The results of the regression analyses are presented in Tables 26 through 29. Analyses were done of the entire sample and then of the females only in order to control for gender. While most of the $\underline{F}$ tests are significant, this is primarily due to the large size of the sample. An examination of the $\underline{R}^2$ figures shows that very little of the group variability is accounted for by any of the predictor variables. The only two that appear to have an influence are socioeconomic status and age, and their contribution in terms of group variance is minimal.

TABLE 25

R's Perceptions of Their Chances of Obtaining Their Occupational Aspirations[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Excellent	159 (15.9)	173 (17.3)	300 (19.1)	355 (22.1)	794 (21.4)	828 (21.8)
Good	395 (39.4)	385 (38.5)	675 (43.0)	627 (39.0)	1511 (40.7)	1549 (40.8)
Fair	238 (23.7)	228 (22.8)	381 (24.3)	390 (24.3)	729 (19.6)	728 (19.2)
Poor	50 (5.0)	44 (4.4)	60 (3.8)	68 (4.2)	174 (4.7)	166 (4.4)
n of response[b]	842 (83.9)	830 (83.1)	1416 (90.3)	1440 (89.7)	3208 (86.3)	3271 (86.2)

$\chi^2 = 54.665$, 15 d.f. $p < 0.0$

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[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

TABLE 26-A

Regression of Family Size Attitudes Variable on Race, Sex, SES and Age Variables for Group Sample[a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.0903	0.0063	43.3979*
	Black	0.0718	0.0119	36.9725*
II	Sex	-0.0661	0.0162	29.4039*
III	SES	0.0094	0.0164	1.3400
IV	Age	-0.0930	0.0250	57.4682*

[a] FAMSIZE = sum of standardized scores of ideal, desired and expected number of children (see Tables 8, 9 and 10). The Cronbach alpha is .81. N = 6533 (52% of total sample).

*Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 26-B

Regression of Family Size Attitudes Variable on Race, SES and Age Variables for Group Sample: Females Only[a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.06442	0.0039	11.7718*
	Black	0.02712	0.0045	1,8811
II	SES	-0.02461	0.0049	1,1529
III	Age	-0.08471	0.0120	21.5109*

[a] N = 3,002, 47% of total female sample.

*Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 27-A

Regression of Family Role Attitudes: Male Privilege Variable on Race, Sex, SES and Age Variables for Group Sample[a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.0743	0.0094	71.7458*
	Black	-0.0088	0.0097	2.5267
II	Sex	-0.3301	0.1173	823.7366 *
III	SES	0.1554	0.1412	183.3078 *
IV	Age	-0.0775	0.1472	45.6355 *

[a] NEGROLS = sum of standardized scores of V1200, V1201, V1203, V1205 and V1207 (see Table 14 for listing of items). The Cronbach alpha is .78. N = 6533 (52% of total sample).

*Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 27-B

Regression of Family Role Attitudes: Male Privilege Variable on Race, SES and Age Variables for Group Sample: Females Only[a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.06600	0.0066	20.7577*
	Black	0.03720	0.01238	17.9712 *
II	SES	0.15771	0.03684	76.6124 *
III	Age	-0.07577	0.04252	17.7520 *

[a] N = 3,002, 47% of total female sample.

*Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 28-A

Regression of Educational Aspirations Variable on Race, Sex, SES and Age Variables for Group Sample[a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.0093	0.0021	15.4745 *
	Black	0.0657	0.0022	0.2920
II	Sex	0.0584	0.0051	21.6058 *
III	SES	-0.3104	0.0983	680.0000 *
IV	Age	0.08556	0.1055	52.9927 *

[a] EDUCASPS = sum of scores on educational aspirations and educational expectations variables (see Table 21). The correlation is .85. N = 6533 (52% of total sample).

*Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 28-B

Regression of Educational Aspirations Variable on Race, SES and Age Variables for Group Sample: Females Only.[a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.01984	0.0013	4.0856 *
	Black	0.08252	0.0015	0.8106
II	SES	-0.26819	0.0706	224.1569 **
III	Age	0.06967	0.0754	15.5642 **

[a] N = 3,002, 47% of total female sample.

*Significant at the .05 level. **Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 29-A

Regression of Occupational Aspirations Variable on Race, Sex, SES and Age Variables for Group Sample[a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.0283	0.0001	0.6289
	Black	0.0415	0.0002	0.6988
II	Sex	0.0968	0.0089	60.7966 *
III	SES	-0.2463	0.0655	395.7372 *
IV	Age	-0.0081	0.0656	0.4892

[a] Occupational Aspirations = score for V1376, what R would like to be doing at age 35 (see Table 23). N = 6533 (52% of total sample).

*Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 29-B

Regression of Occupational Aspirations Variable on Race, SES and Age Variables for Group Sample: Females Only[a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.03741	0.0002	0.6483
	Black	0.03181	0.0002	0.1235
II	SES	-0.17128	0.02689	82.2476 **
III	Age	-0.04641	0.0290	6.5761 *

[a] N = 3,002, 47% of total female sample.

*Significant at the .05 level.

**Significant at the .01 level.

B. The High School and Beyond Survey

The sample utilized for this research study included those students who identified themselves as of Hispanic origin, non-Hispanic Blacks and non-Hispanic Whites. Students of different racial/ethnic origins and those who labeled themselves as "other" were not included in the analysis. Thus, the total number of questionnaires studied was 51,578, out of a possible 58,270. Of these 51,578 students, there were 3,362 Hispanic females, 2,877 Hispanic males, 3,977 Black females, 3,053 Black males, 19,603 White females, and 18,706 White males. Over half of each group, except for the Black females, were sophomores at the time of the interview. Hispanic and Black students were almost twice as likely to be from lower socioeconomic status families as Whites. See Tables 30 and 31 for for more information on these characteristics of the sample.

Marriage. The group which rated highest in assessing the importance of finding the right person to marry and having a happy family life was White females, followed by Hispanic females. Black males ranked this item lowest (72% as very important), and the other three groups were similar in their percentage response (see Table 32, item A). However, Hispanic females tended to have already married more so than other groups of females, as was also true of Hispanic males. Hispanic females were also the group most likely to expect to marry under 18, although White females were the highest for age 18 to 20. Black students were unusual in that both males and females had the highest percentage of young people who do not expect to marry. The majority of

TABLE 30

Sample from the High School & Beyond Survey (1980): Distribution by Racial/Ethnic Group, Gender and Grade[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
Grade	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Sophomores	1,731 (51.5)	1,488 (51.7)	1,966 (49.4)	1,602 (52.5)	9,924 (50.6)	9,432 (50.4)
Seniors	1,631 (48.5)	1,389 (48.3)	2,011 (50.6)	1,451 (47.5)	9,679 (49.4)	9,274 (49.6)
Group n	3,362	2,877	3,977	3,053	19,603	18,706

Note: The sample includes Hispanics, Non-Hispanic Blacks and Non-Hispanic Whites, excluding students of different racial/ethnic groups and those who labeled themselves as "other." The total N is, thus, 51,578 out of 58,270.

[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

TABLE 31

Socioeconomic Status[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
Level	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Low	1,902 (56.6)	1,418 (49.3)	2,029 (51.0)	1,312 (43.0)	4,437 (22.6)	3,455 (18.5)
Medium	1,042 (31.1)	1,099 (38.2)	1,370 (34.4)	1,205 (39.5)	9,895 (50.5)	9,253 (49.5)
High	302 (9.0)	275 (9.6)	332 (8.3)	341 (11.2)	5,001 (25.5)	5,660 (30.3)
n (%) of response	3,246 (96.6)	2,792 (97.0)	3,731 (93.8)	2,858 (93.6)	19,333 (98.6)	18,368 (98.2)

Note: This table is based on the SES composite scale score collapsed into low quartile, middle two quartiles, and high quartile as if the distribution were normal.

[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

TABLE 32

Importance of Family Life Variables[a]

(A) Importance of finding the right person to marry and having a happy family life

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Very important	2,813 (83.7)	2,260 (78.6)	3,109 (78.2)	2,186 (71.6)	16,783 (85.6)	14,820 (79.2)
Somewhat important	384 (11.4)	418 (14.5)	543 (13.7)	514 (16.8)	2,158 (11.0)	2,631 (14.1)
Not important	127 (3.8)	145 (5.0)	247 (6.2)	237 (7.8)	544 (2.8)	1,002 (5.4)
n (%) of response	3,324 (98.9)	2,823 (98.1)	3,899 (98.0)	2,937 (96.2)	19,485 (99.4)	18,453 (98.6)

(B) Importance of living close to parents and relatives

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Very important	677 (20.1)	578 (20.1)	1,249 (31.4)	929 (30.4)	5,208 (26.6)	5,499 (29.4)
Somewhat important	1,724 (51.3)	1,566 (54.4)	1,916 (48.2)	1,469 (48.1)	10,860 (55.4)	9,850 (52.7)
Not important	889 (26.4)	657 (22.8)	688 (17.3)	501 (16.4)	3,326 (17.0)	2,993 (16.0)
n (%) of response	3,290 (97.9)	2,801 (97.4)	3,853 (96.9)	2,899 (95.0)	19,394 (98.9)	18,342 (98.1)

students indicated that they expected to wait until they were 23 years old or older to marry, with the exception of White females (43.1%) and Hispanic females (42.2%). See Table 33 for details.

Two other items grouped by the questionnaire administrators into a "family orientation" scale addressed the importance of living close to parents and relatives and the importance of getting away from this area of the country. A realiability analysis, however, indicated that the Cronbach alpha was a low .51, suggesting that the scale was doing an inadequate job of assessment familism. Blacks rated living close to parents as very important to a greater extent than other groups, although all six groups clearly viewed this issue as somewhat or very important (interestingly enough, Hispanic students had the highest percentages of marking this item as not important). White students rated getting away from this area of the country as very important more often than did other groups, although again, all six groups seemed to perceive this as an important issue for them (see Table 32, B & C).

Children. The group most likely to report that having children was very important was White females, with Hispanic females following. Black students were again unusual, with the highest response of not important and the lowest response of very important (see Table 34). The group most favorably disposed to a large sized family (of three or more children), however, was Hispanic males, followed by Hispanic females, Black males and White females. Black females and White males were the least receptive to a large family, while Black females and Black males indicated more than other groups that they expected to have small families (of one

TABLE 32 (Con.)

Importance of Family Life Variables[a]

(C) Importance of getting away from this area of the country

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Very important	1,719 (51.1)	1,493 (51.9)	1,664 (41.8)	1,310 (42.9)	11,480 (58.6)	10,685 (57.1)
Somewhat important	1,132 (33.7)	923 (32.1)	1,412 (35.5)	1,031 (33.8)	5,420 (27.6)	5,128 (27.4)
Not important	451 (13.4)	391 (13.6)	776 (19.5)	570 (18.7)	2,519 (12.9)	2,574 (13.8)
n (%) of response	3,302 (98.2)	2,807 (97.6)	3,852 (96.9)	2,911 (95.3)	19,419 (99.1)	18,387 (98.3)

Note: This Family Orientation composite scale was not utilized in the analysis, as the Cronbach alpha was only .51.

TABLE 33

Age Student Expects to Get Married[a]

	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Already married	43 (1.3)	26 (0.9)	21 (0.5)	9 (0.3)	167 (0.9)	52 (0.3)
Under 18	68 (2.0)	19 (0.7)	38 (1.0)	27 (0.9)	285 (1.5)	96 (0.5)
18 - 20	732 (21.8)	351 (12.2)	512 (12.9)	178 (5.8)	4,522 (23.1)	2,221 (11.9)
21 - 22	793 (23.6)	522 (18.1)	722 (18.2)	417 (13.7)	4,935 (25.2)	4.021 (21.5)
23 +	1,419 (42.2)	1,526 (53.0)	2,042 (51.3)	1,750 (57.3)	8,449 (43.1)	9,913 (53.0)
Don't expect to marry	199 (5.9)	296 (10.3)	477 (12.0)	455 (14.9)	802 (4.1)	1,616 (8.6)
n (%) of response	3,254 (96.8)	2,740 (95.2)	3,812 (95.9)	2,836 (92.9)	19,160 (97.7)	17,919 (95.8)

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[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

TABLE 34

Importance of Having Children[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Very important	1,425 (43.0)	1,090 (38.8)	1,224 (31.6)	966 (33.3)	9,069 (46.6)	6,780 (36.9)
Somewhat important	1,296 (39.1)	1,239 (44.1)	1,521 (39.3)	1,247 (43.0)	7,335 (37.7)	8,209 (44.7)
Not important	591 (17.8)	479 (17.1)	1,126 (29.1)	689 (23.7)	3,065 (15.7)	3,886 (18.4)
n (%) of response	3,312 (98.5)	2,808 (97.6)	3,871 (97.3)	2,902 (95.1)	19,469 (99.3)	18,375 (98.2)

TABLE 35

Number of Children Expected[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
0 or 1	470 (14.0)	456 (15.8)	811 (20.4)	559 (18.3)	2,691 (13.7)	3,059 (16.4)
2	1,588 (47.2)	1,239 (43.1)	1,953 (49.1)	1,302 (42.6)	9,701 (49.5)	9,625 (51.5)
3 +	1,257 (37.4)	1,105 (38.4)	1,164 (29.3)	1,097 (35.9)	6,998 (35.7)	5,408 (28.9)
n (%) of response	3,315 (98.6)	2,800 (97.3)	3,928 (98.8)	2,958 (96.9)	19,390 (98.9)	18,092 (96.7)

[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

or no children). Less than 50% of all groups, excepting White males, reported that they expected to have an "average size" family of two children; one out of three or four expects to have three or more children.

In examining the responses of the younger students (the sophomores), it can be seen that Black students report the largest frequency of having already had a child. Black males also indicate that they expect to have a child under the age of 18 more frequently than do other groups. Almost half of all six groups expect to wait until they are 23 years old or older to have their first child, when both White females and males planning to delay longer, followed by Hispanic females and then males, Black females with Black males the smallest percentage (see Table 36). Interestingly enough, in comparison to Table 35, Hispanic males indicate to the same degree as Black females that they do not expect to have any children (13.4%). White females report the lowest frequency of expected childlessness, followed by Hispanic females.

When sophomores were asked if they would consider having a child if they were not married, a clear racial demarcation emerged: Blacks, particularly Black males, are much more accepting of this possibility than other groups. However, males were more receptive in each case (a "yes" or "maybe" response) for the other two racial/ethnic groups as well. The most "conservative" or least accepting group of such an event were White females, while Hispanic females and White males followed with essentially the same percent of negative response (see Table 37).

All students were asked if they had ever been in a family

TABLE 36

Age Expect to Have First Child (Sophomores Only)[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Already had child	13 (0.8)	15 (1.0)	57 (2.9)	27 (1.7)	37 (0.3)	44 (0.5)
Under 18	24 (1.4)	23 (1.5)	28 (1.4)	39 (2.4)	65 (0.7)	59 (0.6)
18 - 20	109 (6.3)	66 (4.4)	167 (8.5)	132 (8.2)	598 (6.0)	346 (3.7)
21 - 22	275 (15.9)	193 (13.0)	229 (11.6)	187 (11.7)	1,515 (15.3)	1,177 (12.5)
23 +	1,030 (59.5)	856 (57.5)	1,083 (55.1)	794 (49.6)	6,450 (65.0)	6,068 (64.3)
Don't expect to have child	163 (9.2)	199 (13.4)	264 (13.4)	200 (12.5)	836 (8.4)	999 (10.6)
n (%) of response	1,614 (93.2)	1,352 (90.9)	1,828 (93.0)	1,379 (86.1)	9,501 (95.7)	8,693 (92.2)

TABLE 37

Would Consider Having a Child if Weren't Married (Sophomores Only)[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Yes	133 (7.7)	143 (9.6)	327 (16.6)	339 (21.2)	584 (5.9)	602 (6.4)
Maybe	336 (19.4)	398 (26.7)	625 (31.8)	575 (35.9)	1.799 (18.1)	1,859 (19.7)
No	1,241 (71.7)	917 (61.6)	981 (49.9)	629 (39.3)	7,471 (75.3)	6,737 (71.4)
n (%) of response	1,710 (98.8)	1,458 (98.0)	1,933 (98.3)	1,543 (96.3)	9,354 (99.3)	9,198 (97.5)

[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

life or sex education course or program in high school (see Table 38) and whether they were aware of and/or had participated in a special school for pregnant girls or mothers (see Table 39). Given the tendency of young men to be receptive to the possibility of having a child if they were not married, it seems logical to discover that male students are much less likely to have had any kind of family life or sex education training (about four out of 10 for all three racial/ethnic groups) in contrast to the young women (slightly more than 45% had had such instruction). It is also ironic that over two thirds of the Hispanic males and White males report that they are unaware of special programs for teenage mothers. Greater awareness on the part of Black students would be expected, since they reported higher rates of childbirth than the other groups, and this was borne out, as was their higher participation in such programs. White females indicated the least knowledge of such special programs.

In relation to these issues, sophomores were asked about the amount of information on methods of birth control that they would be able to provide a friend if asked for assistance. Black females, followed by Black males and White males, indicated they would be well prepared; however, only about 1 in three or four responded in this manner. The group reporting itself as at a greatest disadvantage in terms of information was Hispanic females. (see Table 40).

When they were asked about the most important source of information about methods of birth control, there were some intriguing group differences. Black females were unique in two respects:

TABLE 38

Ever Been in a Family Life or Sex Education Course or Program in High School[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Yes	1,564 (46.5)	1,136 (39.5)	1,750 (44.0)	1,203 (39.4)	9,036 (46.7)	7,386 (39.5)
No	1,725 (51.3)	1,669 (58.0)	2,104 (52.9)	1,711 (56.0)	10,319 (52.6)	10,912 (58.3)
n (%) of response	3,289 (97.8)	2,805 (97.5)	3,854 (96.9)	2,914 (95.4)	19,355 (98.7)	18,298 (97.8)

TABLE 39

Awareness and/or Participation in Special School for Pregnant Girls or Mothers[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Never heard of this program	1,338 (39.8)	1,949 (67.7)	898 (22.6)	1,487 (48.7)	8,365 (42.7)	13,224 (70.7)
Have heard of this program but have not participated	1,892 (56.3)	776 (27.0)	2,772 (69.7)	1,310 (42.9)	10,883 (55.5)	4,898 (26.2)
Have participated in this program	40 (1.2)	35 (1.2)	143 (3.6)	58 (1.9)	102 (0.5)	130 (0.7)
n (%) of response	3,270 (97.3)	2,760 (95.9)	3,813 (95.9)	2,855 (93.5)	19,350 (98.7)	18,252 (97.6)

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[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

Knowledge about Birth Control (Sophomores Only)[a]

Suppose a friend asked you about information on methods of birth control. How much information would you be able to give him/her?

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Very little	617 (35.6)	410 (27.6)	567 (28.8)	476 (29.7)	2,492 (25.1)	1,980 (21.0)
Some	796 (46.0)	733 (49.3)	740 (37.6)	674 (42.1)	5,105 (51.4)	4,953 (52.5)
A lot	302 (17.4)	314 (21.1)	629 (32.0)	405 (25.3)	2,241 (22.6)	2,326 (24.7)
n (%) of response	1,715 (99.1)	1,457 (97.9)	1,936 (98.5)	1,555 (97.1)	9,838 (99.1)	9,259 (98.2)

TABLE 41

Most Important Source of Information about Methods of Birth Control (Sophomores Only)[a]

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
School courses on sex (family) education	436 (25.2)	472 (31.7)	375 (19.1)	455 (28.4)	2,115 (21.3)	2,592 (27.5)
Talking with my father or mother	270 (15.6)	148 (9.9)	356 (18.1)	254 (15.9)	1,754 (17.7)	970 (10.3)
Talking with friends	182 (10.5)	241 (16.2)	160 (8.1)	212 (13.2)	1,625 (16.4)	2,093 (22.2)
Books and magazines I have read	183 (10.6)	150 (10.1)	173 (8.8)	139 (8.7)	1,587 (16.0)	1,447 (15.3)
Clinic or agency	402 (23.2)	242 (16.3)	610 (31.0)	235 (14.7)	1,740 (17.5)	1,026 (10.9)
Don't know about methods of birth control	176 (10.2)	138 (9.3)	170 (8.6)	162 (10.1)	544 (5.5)	633 (6.8)
n (%) of response	1,649 (95.3)	1,391 (93.5)	1,844 (93.8)	1,457 (90.9)	9,365 (94.4)	8,766 (92.9)

[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

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they reported the largest response in looking to a clinic or agency (one out of three Black females) but also had the largest response of talking with their parents (18%). Again, it seems somewhat ironic in light of the small percentages of young men who had taken sex education courses in school that the highest response category of source of information on birth control methods for young men in all three racial/ethnic groups was -- school courses on sex (family) education. Both White females and White males relied on books and magazines more so than the other groups. Hispanic females and Black males reported a higher percentage of young people who did not know about methods of birth control. Informed young Hispanic women appeared to relied most on school courses (one out of four), clinic or agency programs (23.2%) and discussions with their parents (15.6%). There does not appear to be as heavy a reliance on friends as a source of information as has been reported in other surveys, although 22% of the White male students indicated that friends were their major information source, as did more than 16% of the White females and Hispanic males (see Table 41).

Family Role Attitudes. Sophomore students were also asked to respond to three items concerning sex roles or family role attitudes which focused on women's working outside the home. A reliability analysis indicated that the three items did not function effectively as a scale measuring sex role attitudes in that the Cronbach alpha was a dismal .28. Nevertheless, an appraisal of the individual items is useful for comparing group responses. Female responses made it difficult to characterize any one of the groups as more "conservative" or "traditional" in their views of women's involvement in the labor force: White females were most conservative on the first item (see Table 42, item A), while Hispanic females were most conservative on the second (Table 42, item B), and Black females, followed closely by Hispanic females, were the most conservaitve on the third (Table 42, item C).

The most striking result, however, was the gap in agreement between the sexes on two of the items. As in the NLS, the major cutting issue was the statement that "It is usually better for everyone involved if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family." White females and males were the most divided (22.6% points separating them), but Blacks and Hispanics had a gap of disagreement close to 18%.

Education. Since all of the young people interviewed in the HSB survey were enrolled high school students at the sophomore level or above, one can assume that they are probably "survivors," having made it past one of the critical drop-out junctures of the transition from junior to senior high school. Thus, when sophomores were asked if they expected to graduate from high school, the vast majority seemed confident that they would (see Table 43, item A). Two groups who seemed somewhat less certain of their chances, however, were Hispanic males and females.

All students were asked if they would be disappointed if they did not graduate from college. Black and Hispanic females indicated the highest potential disappointment, while White males, Hispanic males and White females had the lowest response (see

TABLE 42

Family Role Attitudes (Sophomores Only)[a]

(A) A working mother of pre-school children can be just as good a mother as the woman who doesn't work.

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Agree strongly	423 (24.4)	257 (17.3)	714 (36.3)	402 (25.5)	1,872 (18.9)	1,358 (14.4)
Agree	805 (46.5)	693 (46.6)	883 (44.9)	752 (46.9)	4,301 (43.3)	3,789 (40.2)
Disagree	385 (22.2)	385 (25.9)	249 (12.7)	276 (17.2)	2,830 (28.5)	3,027 (32.1)
Disagree strongly	82 (4.7)	102 (6.9)	66 (3.4)	69 (4.3)	802 (8.1)	926 (9.8)
n (%) of response	1,695 (97.9)	1,437 (96.6)	1,912 (97.3)	1,505 (93.9)	9,805 (98.8)	9,100 (96.5)

(B) It is usually better for everyone involved if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family.

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Agree strongly	187 (10.8)	215 (14.4)	174 (8.9)	222 (13.9)	742 (7.5)	1,365 (14.5)
Agree	539 (34.0)	715 (48.1)	500 (25.4)	553 (34.5)	2,783 (28.0)	4,114 (43.6)
Disagree	676 (39.1)	431 (29.0)	764 (38.9)	576 (36.0)	4,381 (44.1)	3,097 (32.8)
Disagree strongly	231 (13.3)	62 (4.2)	460 (23.4)	134 (8.4)	1,853 (18.7)	457 (4.8)
n (%) of response	1,683 (97.2)	1,423 (95.6)	1,898 (96.5)	1,485 (92.7)	9,759 (98.3)	9,033 (95.6)

TABLE 42 (con.)

Family Role Attitudes (Sophomores Only)[a]

(C) Most women are happiest when they are making a home and caring for children.

	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Agree strongly	224 (12.9)	227 (15.3)	337 (17.1)	270 (16.9)	701 (7.1)	908 (9.6)
Agree	700 (40.4)	694 (46.6)	736 (37.4)	629 (39.3)	2,984 (30.1)	3,940 (41.8)
Disagree	620 (35.8)	438 (29.4)	614 (31.2)	459 (28.7)	4,693 (47.3)	3,629 (38.5)
Disagree strongly	143 (8.3)	55 (3.7)	210 (10.7)	116 (7.2)	1,328 (13.4)	413 (4.4)
n (%) of response	1,687 (97.5)	1,414 (95.0)	1,897 (96.5)	1,474 (92.0)	9,706 (97.8)	8,890 (94.3)

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[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

TABLE 43

Educational Profile: Three Characteristics[a]

(A) Do you expect to graduate from high school? (Sophomores only)

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Yes	1,599 (92.4)	1,317 (38.5)	1,898 (96.5)	1,494 (93.3)	9,449 (95.2)	8,830 (93.6)
Probably	103 (6.0)	143 (9.6)	54 (2.7)	83 (5.2)	374 (3.8)	470 (5.0)
Probably not	16 (0.9)	14 (0.9)	5 (0.3)	12 (0.7)	55 (0.6)	66 (0.7)
No	11 (0.6)	11 (0.7)	6 (0.3)	8 (0.5)	34 (0.3)	45 (0.7)
n (%) of response	1,729 (99.9)	1,485 (99.8)	1,963 (99.8)	1,597 (99.7)	9,912 (99.9)	9,411 (99.8)

(B) Will be disappointed if don't graduate from college.

	Hispanic		Black		White	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
True	2,393 (71.2)	1,729 (60.1)	3,118 (78.4)	2,107 (69.0)	12,154 (62.0)	10,928 (58.4)
False	885 (26.3)	1,027 (35.7)	726 (18.3)	775 (25.4)	7,005 (35.7)	7,158 (38.3)
n (%) of response	3,278 (97.5)	2,756 (95.8)	3,844 (96.7)	2,882 (94.4)	19,159 (97.7)	18,036 (96.7)

TABLE 43 (Con.)

Educational Profile: Three Characteristics[a]

(C) Do you plan to go to college at some time in the future?

	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Yes, right after high school	1,796 (53.4)	1,313 (45.6)	2,158 (54.3)	1,478 (48.4)	10,689 (54.5)	9,115 (48.7)
Yes, after staying out one year	371 (11.0)	274 (9.5)	398 (10.0)	247 (8.1)	1,837 (9.4)	1,624 (8.7)
Yes, after a longer period out of school	91 (2.7)	108 (3.8)	134 (3.4)	111 (3.6)	397 (2.0)	529 (2.8)
Don't know	541 (16.1)	505 (17.6)	504 (12.7)	493 (16.1)	2,826 (14.4)	2,638 (14.1)
No	332 (9.9)	459 (16.0)	358 (9.0)	343 (11.2)	2,833 (14.5)	3,543 (18.9)
n (%) of response	3,131 (93.1)	2,659 (92.4)	3,552 (89.3)	2,672 (87.5)	18,582 (94.8)	17,449 (93.3)

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[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

Table 43, item B).

Another question asked if students planned to go to college at some time in the future. Again, the majority of all six groups reported that they planned to go to college, either right after high school graduation or after staying out one year (see Table 43, item C). Significant percentages responded that they did not know (almost 13% of Black females, the low, to 17.6% of Hispanic males, the high). White males made up the largest group of those who stated they did not plan to go to college in the future, while Black and Hispanic females were the smallest group.

In comparing the lowest level of education that students would be satisfied with to the level of schooling they actually expect to attain, one is struck by the high levels of expectation in all six groups: almost one in five of the students expects to obtain an advanced degree, and one out of every four or five expect to finish a 4- or 5-year college degree program. Given that so many expect to achieve at a higher level than they indicate they would accept, one wonders if they answered the former question idealistically rather than realistically (see Table 44).

Regression analyses: The relative effect of race and gender on aspirations of young people. The results of the regression analyses are presented in Tables 45 through 48. Analyses were done of the entire sophomore sample and then of the sophomore females only in order to control for gender. While almost all of the F tests are statistically significant, this is mainly due to the large size of the sample. An examination of the R^2 figures indicates that almost none of the group variability is

TABLE 44

Educational Desires and Expectations[a]

	Hispanic			
	Females		Males	
	wants[b]	expects[c]	wants	expects
Less than high school graduation	115 (3.4)	42 (1.2)	83 (2.9)	51 (1.8)
High school graduation only	1,096 (32.6)	711 (21.1)	1,046 (36.4)	730 (25.4)
Some college (vocational, trade or business school; less than 2 or 2 or more years of college, including 2-year degree	1,320 (39.3)	1,193 (35.5)	1,031 (35.8)	937 (32.6)
Finish college (4- or 5-year degree)	481 (14.3)	664 (19.8)	384 (13.3)	541 (18.8)
Advanced degree (M.A., Ph.D., M.D. or other advanced professional degree)	259 (7.7)	667 (19.8)	233 (8.1)	513 (17.8)
n (%) of response	3,271 (97.3)	3,277 (97.5)	2,777 (96.5)	2,772 (96.4)

	Black			
	Females		Males	
	wants	expects	wants	expects
Less than high school graduation	135 (3.4)	34 (0.9)	93 (3.0)	49 (1.6)
High school graduation only	906 (22.8)	601 (15.1)	876 (28.7)	596 (19.5)
Some college (vocational, trade or business school; less than 2 or 2 or more years of colege, including 2-year degree	1,623 (40.8)	1,252 (31.5)	1,106 (36.2)	921 (30.2)
Finish college (4- or 5-year degree	693 (17.4)	884 (22.2)	540 (17.7)	705 (23.1)
Advanced degree (M.A., Ph.D., M.D. or other advanced professional degree)	465 (11.7)	1,049 (26.4)	266 (8.7)	602 (19.7)
	3,822 (96.1)	3,820 (96.1)	2,881 (94.4)	2,873 (94.1)

TABLE 44 (Con.)

Educational Desires and Expectations[a]

	White			
	Females		Males	
	wants[b]	expects[c]	wants	expects
Less than high school graduation	468 (2.4)	167 (0.9)	391 (2.1)	168 (0.9)
High school graduation only	7,445 (38.0)	3,837 (19.6)	6,963 (37.2)	4,099 (21.9)
Some college (vocational, trade or business school; less than 2 or 2 or more years of college, including 2-year degree)	6,968 (35.5)	6,867 (35.0)	5,984 (32.0)	5,565 (29.7)
Finish college (4- or 5-year degree)	3,525 (18.0)	4,898 (25.0)	3,724 (19.9)	4,571 (24.4)
Advanced degree (M.A., Ph.D., M.D. or other advanced professional degree)	987 (5.0)	3,527 (18.0)	1,263 (6.8)	3,808 (20.4)
n (%) of response	19,393 (98.9)	19,296 (98.4)	18,325 (98.0)	18,211 (97.4)

[a] Figures in parentheses = % of total respondents in that racial/ethnic and gender group.

[b] "What is the lowest level of education you would be satisfied with?"

[c] "As things stand now, how far in school do you think you will get?"

TABLE 45-A

Regression of Age of Expected Marriage on Race, Sex and SES for Group Sample: Sophomores Only [a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.03562	0.0006	11.8 *
	Black	0.15895	0.0149	286.2 *
II	Sex	-0.16207	0.0457	617.0 *
III	SES	0.17947	0.0752	588.6 *

[a] N = 18,497 (71% of the total sample).

*Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 45-B

Regression of Age of Expected Marriage on Race and SES for Group Sample: Sophomore Females Only [a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.03759	0.0008	8.2796*
	Black	0.18577	0.0213	220.6452*
II	SES	0.20684	0.0607	424.1935*

[a] N = 10,094 (73% of the total female sample).

*Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 46-A

Regression of Age Expect to Have First Child on Race, Sex and SES for Group Sample: Sophomores Only[a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.01435	0.0008	15.1510 *
	Black	0.01839	0.0012	7.1429 *
II	Sex	-0.07796	0.0097	163.7066 *
III	SES	0.18688	0.0416	616.0232 *

[a] N = 18, 497 (71% of the total sample).

*Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 46-B

Regression of Age Expect to Have First Child on Race and SES for Group Sample: Sophomore Females Only[a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.02297	0.0006	6.2040 *
	Black	0.04734	0.0006	0.3155
II	Sex	0.20778	0.0404	418.6120 **
III	SES			

[a] N = 10,094 (73% of the total female sample).

*Significant at the .05 level. *Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 47-A

Regression of Expected Number of Children on Race, Sex and SES for Group Sample: Sophomores Only[a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.04281	0.0009	16.7598 *
	Black	0.01719	0.0010	1.1173
II	Sex	0.04989	0.0031	39.1061*
III	SES	0.05385	0.0057	49.3482*

[a] N = 18,497 (71% of the total sample).

*Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 47-B

Regression of Expected Number of Children on Race and SES for Group Sample: Sophomore Females Only[a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.02586	0.0003	2.6423
	Black	-0.03121	0.0023	20.3252*
II	SES	0.06981	0.0068	45.6301*

[a] N = 10, 094 (73% of the total female sample).

*Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 48-A

Regression of Educational Aspirations Variable on Race, Sex and SES for Group Sample: Sophomores Only [a]

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.10018	0.0001	2.0225
	Black	0.16328	0.0066	147.1910*
II	Sex	0.05498	0.0071	11.2360*
III	SES	0.42958	0.1758	3,788.9887*

[a] EDUCASP = sum of standardized scores of disappointment if don't graduate from college (see Table 43, item B), plans to go to college some time in the future (see Table 43, item C), lowest level of education would be satisfied with and expected level of education (see Table 44). The Chronbach alpha is .89. N = 18,497 (71% of the total sample).

[*] Significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 48-B

Regression of Educational Aspirations Variable on Race and SES for Group Sample: Sophomore Females Only[a].

Step	Predictor	Beta Weight	R^2	F
I	Hispanic	0.10979	0.0000	0.1217
	Black	0.19248	0.0119	144.2822*
II	SES	0.41432	0.1702	1,1925.6690*

[a] EDUCASP developed as in Table 48-A. N = 10,094 (73% of the total female sample).

[*] Significant at the .01 level.

accounted for by any of the predictor variables. The one possible exception is the influence of socioeconomic status on the students' educational aspirations, but this variable accounts for less than 18% of the variance in both analyses.

VI. YOUNG HISPANICS AND THEIR ASPIRATIONS FOR THE FUTURE -- IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY

It is exciting to compare findings from the National Longitudinal Survey of Labor Force Behavior with those of the High School and Beyond Survey precisely because of the similarities in care with which they were designed and implemented and because of the differences in the populations they sampled. Both are nationwide probability samples that oversampled low income and minority youth, particularly Hispanics, thus providing one of the very first opportunities to learn about the characteristics of Hispanic adolescents and young adults as a general group. However, when one compares responses to the two questionnaires, it is important to remember that the NLS interview was done by an interviewer in the young person's home, while the HSB questionnaire was filled out by the student in his or her classroom. Each suffers from the limitations of self-reports by adolescents and the potential obtrusiveness of some of the items on personal attitudes. Yet they are rich data sources for laying the foundation of a more empirical understanding of the circumstances and perceptions of Hispanic young people in this society.

Young Hispanic females in both samples tended to be married more than other groups (except that White females in the NLS had a similar rate). However, in contrast to much of the literature which portrays Hispanic women as primarily focused on marriage and children, both surveys suggested that young White females tended to value marriage somewhat more than Hispanic females. Similarly, although Hispanic females apparently idealize larger size families to a greater extent than White females and expect to have slightly more children, White females give a higher rating to the importance of having children. In terms of timing of their children, Hispanic and White women in the NLS were almost exactly the same, whereas White females in the HSB sample planned to delay the start of their families longer than did Hispanic females. Black females were clearly distinct on each of these issues, in that they were less likely to be married, to expect to marry and to marry early. They were more likely to already have had a child than the other two groups of young women, and while they tended to idealize large families, they had the lowest expectations of having large numbers of children and the highest percent who did not expect to have any children.

Young Hispanic males seemed somewhat more positive about marriage than Black males and similar or more positive than White males. In both surveys, Hispanic males were more positive about larger sized families than were Hispanic females, as was true in the case of Black males and females. In the NLS interview, Hispanic males were the least accepting of the idea of having no children, whereas in the HSB survey, they had the highest percent response (along with Black females) of students reporting that they did not expect to have any children.

The HSB questions on having a child outside of marriage indicated more "liberal" or accepting responses from Hispanic males than females; this could be a factor of the young men's lack of awareness of responsibilities involved in such instances. Their attitudes, however, were quite different from those of Blacks who were dramatically more accepting of such an idea and from Whites who were much more negative. In fact, White females were more negative than Hispanic females.

Hispanic males, like the young men in the other two racial/ethnic groups, were less likely to have had a family life or sex education course in school than were Hispanic females or the other young women. More than two thirds of the Hispanic males and White males stated that they were unaware of special programs for pregnant girls and mothers. Young Hispanic women were both more aware of and had participated more in such programs than White females but less than Black females. This is possibly related to the fact that these young Hispanic women appear to be the least informed of the six groups about methods of birth control. In spite of the reality that so few Hispanic males have sex education training in school, one in three cited school courses as their major source of information on birth control. One in four Hispanic females also looked to school courses for their information.

One of the potentially most troubling findings in both surveys with implications for family formation was the wide gap in agreement between young Hispanic women and Hispanic men about traditional sex roles. Hispanic males appear to be much less receptive to women's assuming active roles outside the home than are Hispanic women; while this was true for the other two groups as well, the gaps were not so dramatic. In comparing Hispanic females with the other young women, the results did not support a simplistic picture of Hispanic women as more "traditional" in their views.

The NLS data documented the fact that Hispanics are at higher risk of dropping out of high school even though they have high educational aspirations. It also pointed to the special problems of young Hispanic women, in that 22% of the non-enrolled students reported that they had dropped out due to getting married, a pregnancy or home responsibilties. Both surveys provided evidence of the aspirations that young Hispanics have of attending and graduating from college, particularly those high school students who participated in the HSB survey.

The NLS findings provided clear evidence that young Hispanic women are very much planning on being part of the labor force as they mature (two thirds plan to be working at age 35), and in spite of the social science image of Hispanic women as homemakers, they scored slightly lower on the choice of marriage and family at age 35 than did White females. Over half of the Hispanic females and males in the NLS survey hope to have a professional, technical, managerial or administrative position by age 35.

To summarize, there are indeed differences between and among the racial/ethnic and gender groups of young people in these two surveys. But there is no clear cut pattern which would allow one to characterize Hispanics as less motivated or more traditional in their attitudes as a general characteristic. This is particularly important for adolescent and young Hispanic women who have frequently been victimized by carelessly conceived and poorly implemented social science research studies. The findings document that young White females aspire as much, or more, to a homemaker role as Hispanics, and that young Black women have extraordinarly high aspirations for their future. What is at the heart of such results is the question of how our society will foster and facilitate the development of these young women's capabilities in educational and employment settings. Difficult issues and choices await them in light of their occupational aspirations which contrast with young men's feelings about family size and their ambivalence about changing male/female roles.

As one attempts to delineate the implications for public policy, an assessment of the power of stereotypic images in policy arenas assumes some urgency. Given the limited descriptive data available to us about Hispanic teenagers and young adults, too many decisions about allocations of resources continue to be made on the basis of attributed motivation. These concluding remarks will focus on four such arenas: educational systems, health and mental health programs, employment settings, and social science research centers.

Renewed pressures need to be applied to institutions of higher education in an attempt to stop the perpetuation of inaccurate stereotypes of Hispanics. This implies curriculum reform, which necessitates Hispanic faculty and administrators. It also implies institutional commitment to longitudinal programs of Hispanic research. Financial aid programs need to be maintained and expanded if Hispanic students are to attend college; they must have financial assistance and/or part-time jobs to stay in school. At the secondary level, similar assessments of the impact of ethnic and sex-role stereotypes on the counseling process need to be revigorated. This is true of both academic and vocational counseling, as well as counseling on personal and social issues. In-service training programs and materials need to target the institutions in terms of changing staff attitudes, rather than targeting Hispanic youth as unmotivated.

Health and mental health programs are going to be of increasing importance to young Hispanics as they move into the period of family formation in their lives. As noted, the potential for role conflict between young Hispanic women and young Hispanic men is a serious one, and prevention interventions through the home, school and church in the form of premarital and marital counseling will undoubtedly be critical. Similarly, there is a clear cut need for more responsive and culturally sensitive family life and sex education programs in Hispanic communities. However, since the U. S. model of birth control instruction and service delivery is based on female responsibility, this may prove particularly problematic for Hispanic teenagers and young people in light of the possible lack of agreement about sex roles.

A third issue of major importance for Hispanic young people is that of child care in employment settings (as well as schools). Teenage Hispanic females are being negatively affected by problems of motherhood, and the young Hispanic women in these surveys indicate that they are not willing to give up their maternal role in order to take part in the labor force. Employers and government officials at the local and state levels must anticipate this issue and develop some creative bicultural responses.

Finally, the results of this study indicate the importance of disaggregating research data by racial/ethnic group and by gender to examine the interaction of these two crucial variables. Further work is needed in a similar manner on national origin groups and on immigration experiences/generation. It is also essential to include Blacks and/or other groups for comparisons, in addition to Whites, in order to gain a clearer understanding of relative positions and to avoid any inadvertent posturing of White behaviors or attitudes as norms against which Hispanics will be measured. A last point is supported by the lack of explanatory power provided by the regression analyses of the study. We will continue to need more descriptive data and essentially exploratory research designs to help generate explanations and hypotheses to be tested. Many of the current difficulties in our research paradigms are related to sophisticated statistical techniques which can obtain signficant but not particularly meaningful results. As noted earlier, measurement problems of Hispanic attitudes and behaviors are a particular challenge for the social sciences at this point. These methodological problems must be confronted and resolved if our findings are to be of use in policy arenas with the goal of supporting and improving the conditions of Hispanic families and their young people.

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Report # 2

YOUNG HISPANIC MOTHERS ENROLLED IN SCHOOL AND/OR EMPLOYED INTERVIEWED IN THE 1979 NATIONAL LONGITUDINAL SURVEY OF LABOR FORCE BEHAVIOR

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Young Mothers Enrolled In School and/or Employed In The 1979 National Longitudinal Survey of The Labor Force

In this section we will present the findings of the Hispanic, Black, and White working and/or studying mothers' subsample analysis. In total 6,288 females between the ages of fourteen and twenty-two were interviewed for the National Longitudinal Survey. Of these 1,003 (16.0%) were Hispanic, 1,568 (24.9%) were Black, and 3,717 (59.7%) were White. 15.2% (152) of the Hispanic females reported that they had children as did 20.6 % (323) of the Blacks and 11.6% (430) of the Whites. Of these mothers 29% (44) of the Hispanics, 35.3% (114) of the Blacks and 42.1% (181) of the Whites reported that they worked and/or studied. (Table 30)

As we can see on table 30 Hispanic mothers are more likely to stay at home with their small children than are Blacks (6% difference) and they in turn slightly more likely than Whites (7% difference). Overall it is important to note that in each group more young mothers than not stay at home with their very young children although in each group a substantial percentage either choses to or finds it necessary to work and/or study.

Characteristics Of The Sample

Marital Status: Significant differences were found in this category between Hispanics and Blacks and between Blacks and Whites; however, the difference between Whites and Hispanics was not significant. Thus the extremes on this item were Hispanics and Blacks with Hispanics and Whites having a high and very similar frequency of being presently married (63.6% and 62.4% respectively) and Blacks having a low rate on this item (26.3%). At the other end of the spectrum, Blacks had a significantly higher frequency of never having been married (65.8%) when compared with Hispanics (31.8%) and Whites (23.2%). See table 31 .

In the divorced/separated category, Whites had twice the percentage rate than did Blacks and three times the rate of Hispanics.

To summarize the findings on this item then, Hispanic and White mothers tended to be currently married twice as often as were Blacks. White mothers tended to be separated or divorced almost twice as often as were Blacks and almost three times as often as were Hispanics. Finally, Black mothers tended to be unmarried twice as frequently as Hispanics and Whites. From this data one could attribute these differences to "issues of culture". However one of the ambiguities of this item is that it does not provide information about couples who live together and in such a way provide mutual support. This is a factor which is important to keep in mind given the fact that the phenomenon of unmarried couples living together is more and more common in the U.S. culture.

Family Size: In this category no significant differences were found in the cross-cultural comparison. 70+% of each of the cultural groups had only one child. The Hispanic group did reflect a slight elevation in the "2+ children" category (Table 32). This did set them apart from the other two cultural groups by approximately a ten percentage point difference; however, this was not significant. One could speculate from this data that although these Hispanic mothers do have a slightly higher rate of reproduction, the non-significance of the difference may mean that they are not reproducing at as high a rate as is currently attributed to Hispanics.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

TOTAL NUMBER OF FEMALES IN NATIONAL LONGITUDINAL SURVEY: 6,288 3

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
NUMBER OF FEMALES BY CULTURE.	1003 (16.0)	1,568 (24.9)	3,717 59.7)
NUMBER OF MOTHERS BY CULTURE.	152 (15.2)	323 (20.6)	430 (11.6)
NUMBER OF MOTHERS WHO DO NOT WORK OF STUDY.	108 (71.1)	209 (64.7)	249 (58.0)
NUMBER OF MOTHERS WHO DO WORK AND/OR STUDY.	44 (29.0)	114 (35.3)	181 42.1)

TABLE 31

RESPONDENT'S MARITAL STATUS AT PRESENT

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
PRESENTLY MARRIED	28 (63.6)	30 (26.3)	113 (62.4)
DIVORCED OR SEPARATED	2 (4.5)	9 (7.9)	26 (14.4)
NEVER MARRIED	14 (31.8)	75 (65.8)	42 (23.2)
TOTALS	44 (99.9)	114 (100.0)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 51.5435 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 46.8950 P. < .0000 SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 92.4365 P. < .0001 SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 51.0516 P. < .0000 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 32

NUMBER OF CHILDREN RESPONDENT HAS HAD

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
ONE	27 (71.1)	87 82.1)	135 (81.3)
TWO PLUS	11 (28.9)	19 17.9)	31 (18.7)
TOTALS	38 (100.0)	106 (100.0)	166 (100.0)

Educational Attainment: To begin with, fifteen (34.0%) Hispanics, 59 (51.8%) Black and 44 (24.3%) White mothers reported that they were enrolled in school at the time of their interview (table 33). The data clearly reflects that the Black mothers are the most frequently enrolled in school, the Hispanics are less so and the White mothers are the least frequently enrolled. A significant difference was, however, found only between the two extremes, the Blacks and Whites. Additional significant differences were found among the groups in relation to highest grade completed. The direction of the differences were consistent with the findings in table 34 with reference to Black behavior. At the higher level (college) Blacks had the highest percentage rate (14.2%), they were followed by Whites (8.3%) and they in turn were followed by Hispanics (6.8%). At the level of high school completion, Blacks and Whites were very close (50.4%) and 51.7% respectively while Hispanics were nearly 20 percentage points lower. When reviewing the lowest category on this item (grades one-eleven) it became clear that the Hispanic mothers were lost by the U.S. educational system primarily at this level; 61.4% of them had only completed grades within this range when compared with 35.4% of Blacks and 40% of whites. Table 35 which specifically explored whether the respondent had a high scbol diploma or equivalent reflected the same pattern: 76% of the Blacks had achieved this level as opposed to Whites (73.7%) and Hispanics (44.7%). Hispanics were significantly different from the first two groups.

TABLE 33

GRADE RESPONDENT IS ATTENDING AT PRESENT[c]

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
ENROLLED IN EIGHT GRADE OR HIGH SCHOOL	6 (13.6)	22 (19.3)	10 (5.5)
ENROLLED IN COLLEGE	2 (4.5)	16 (14.0)	8 (4.4)
ENROLLED IN VOCATIONAL PROGRAM	7 (15.9)	21 (18.4)	26 (14.4)
DID NOT REPORT ENROLLMENT	29 (65.9)	55 (48.2)	137 (75.7)
TOTALS	44 (99.9)	114 (99.9)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 29.9862 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 3.7928 P. < .1491 NOT SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 5.0599 P. < .1674 NOT SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 28.9983 P. < .0000 SIGNIFICANT

[c] VARIABLE CREATED FORM N.L.S. INFORMATION

TABLE 34

RESPONDENT'S HIGHEST GRADE COMPLETED

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
GRADES ONE - ELEVEN	27 (61.4)	40 (35.4)	72 (40.0)
COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL	14 (31.8)	57 (50.4)	93 (51.7)
SOME COLLEGE	3 (6.8)	16 (14.2)	15 (8.3)
TOTALS	44 (100.0)	113 (100.0)	180 ([illegible]0.0)

CHI SQUARE: 11,1668 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION
H/W: 5.5683 P. <.1545 Non-SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 35

DOES THE RESPONDENT HAVE A HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA OR EQUIVALENT?

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
NO	21 (55.3)	16 (17.4)	45 (26.3)
YES	17 (44.7)	76 (82.6)	126 (73.7)
TOTALS	38 (100.0)	92 (100.0)	171 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 19.6312 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W:	10.7552	P. < .0010	SIGNIFICANT
H/B:	17.1293	P. < .0000	SIGNIFICANT
B/W:	2.1969	P. < .1382	NOT SIGNIFICANT

Employment Status: In this sample of employed/enrolled mothers 35 (79.5 %) Hispanics, 30 (70.2 %) Blacks, and 136 (75.1 %) Whites were working at the time of the interview. That is, Hispanic mothers in this sample were the most likely to be working whereas Whites were the least likely and Blacks were inbetween. The question which followed was: What kind of work do these young mothers have and are there any cross-cultural differences? The data on Table 36 which summarized the responses of the mother reflected that atleast 94% of each group was concentrated below the professional, managerial/administrative level. They were fairly evenly distributed among the three remaining job categories with little difference among the three cultures.

With reference to "Class of Worker" the data on table 37 reflected that 80%+ of each group worked in private industry with little difference among them. In relation to government jobs, however, there were some differences in that Blacks (16.3%) participated more frequently than Whites (11.8%) and Hispanics (5.7%) in that order.

Hispanics were the most likely to be "self employed"(11.4%) whereas Blacks were the least likely (0%) and Whites fell in between (4.4%). From this data we see that at this age and within the common circumstances of motherhood which these young women share, all three groups tended to have non-managerial jobs with little differentiation. Most worked for private industry, and Hispanics had the lowest participation rate in government jobs.

TABLE 36

OCCUPATION AT CURRENT JOB

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
PROF. TECHNICAL & KINDRED WORKERS, MANAGER, ADMINISTRATORS EXCEPT FARM.	2 (5.7)	4 (5.0)	7 (5.1)
SALES, CLERICAL, & UNSKILLED WORKERS	13 (37.1)	31 (38.8)	48 (35.3)
CRAFTSMEN & KINDRED WORKERS, OPERATIVES EXCEPT TRANSPORTATION.	9 (25.7)	19 (23.8)	27 (19.9)
TRANSPORTATION & EQUIPMENT OPERATIVES, LABORERS, FARMERS FARM MANAGERS, FOREMEN, SERVICE WORKERS, & PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORKERS.	11 (31.4)	26 (32.5)	54 (39.7)
TOTALS	35 (99.9)	80 (100.1)	136 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 1.7915 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 37

CLASS OF WORKER AT CURRENT JOB

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
PRIVATE COMPANY	29 (82.9)	67 (83.8)	114 (83.8)
GOVERNMENT	2 (5.7)	13 (16.3)	16 (11.8)
SELF-EMPLOYED	4 (11.4)	0 (0)	6 (4.4)
TOTALS	35 (100.0)	80 (100.1)	136 (100.0)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE. 3 CELLS < 5.

Other Characteristics: In relation to place of birth, table 38 reflects the following: although the majority of Hispanic mothers were born in the U.S. (70.5%), the rest (29.5%) have personally gone through the immigration experience. This is a significantly higher frequency than either of the other two groups (Blacks: 3.5% and Whites: 3.9%). Additionally, by examining the responses to the qestion "Where did the respondent live at age fourteen?" on table 39, we see that the great majority of the Hispanic mothers who immigrated did so after the age of fourteen (10 out of 13). That is, most of these young women contended with the stresses of immigration which would include leaving familiar places and psycho-social support systems and arriving in a country that is culturally and liguistically very different as well as frequently hostile to culturally-different people. Additionally, they faced a school system with different structures and expectations as well as the formidable problem of learning English. Finally it is important to note that in addition to the 29.5% of Hispanic mothers who reported they were born out side the U.S., another 59.1% (Tables 40,41) reported that their home life in childhood included the significant cultural experience of Spanish language utilization. In total this means that 88.6 % of the Hispanic mothers had this linguistic experience.

In relation to racial-ethnic origin the groups again are significantly if predictably different. The Hispanic subgroups that are most highly represented in this sample are: Mexican American (43%), Mexican (9%); other Hispanic (14%), Puerto Rican (4.5%) and Cuban (4.5%). 96% of the Black mothers identified themselves as "Black" and Whites identified with a variety of mostly European backgrounds. see table 42.

TABLE 38

COUNTRY OF RESPONDENT'S BIRTH

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
IN THE UNITED STATES	31 (70.5)	110 96.5)	174 (96.1)
ANOTHER COUNTRY	13 (29.5)	4 (3.5)	7 (3.9)
TOTALS	44 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 38.8065 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:
H/W: 25.7339 P.<.0000 SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 19.7843 P.<.0000 SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 2.4723 P.<.1158 NOT. SIG.

[a] FIGURES IN PARENTHESES = % OF RESPONDENTS ANSWERING THE ITEM

TABLE 39

WHERE RESPONDENT LIVED AT AGE FOURTEEN

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
IN THE UNITED STATES (77.3)	34 (77.3)	113 (99.1)	179 98.9)
IN ANOTHER COUNTRY	10 (22.7)	1 (.9)	2 (1.1)
TOTALS	44 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	181) (100.0)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE. TWO CELLS < 5.

TABLE 40

LANGUAGE OTHER THAN ENGLISH SPOKEN IN THE HOME DURING CHILDHOOD[b]

NONE REPORTED	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
ANOTHER LANGUAGE REPORTED	39 (88.6)	4 (3.5)	23 (12.7)
NONE REPORTED	5 (11.4)	110 (96.5)	158 (87.3)
TOTALS	44 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 158.0602 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 98.4556 P.<.0001 SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 111.8842 P.<.0001 SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 6.0543 P.<.0138 SIGNIFICANT

[b] THIS IS A CREATED VARIABLE DEVELOPED FROM ITEMS ON THE N.L.S.

TABLE 41

LANGUAGE OTHER THAN ENGLISH SPOKEN AT HOME DURING R's CHILDHOOD

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
SPANISH	39 (100.0)	1 (25.0)	5 (21.7)
FRENCH	0 (0)	2 (50)	2 (8.7)
OTHER	0 (0)	1 (25)	13 (56.5)
TOTALS	39 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	23 (100.0)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE. SIX CELLS < 5.

TABLE 42

RACIAL-ETHNIC ORIGIN OF RESPONDENT

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
NONE	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (1.1)
BLACK	0 (0)	108 (94.7)	0 (0)
SCOTISH OR ENGLISH	1 (2.3)	1 (.9)	58 (32.4)
FRENCH	1 (2.3)	0 (0)	18 (10.1)
GERMAN	2 (4.5)	1 (.9)	17 (19.6)
AMERIC. INDIAN	0 (0)	0 (0)	15 (8.4)
IRISH	1 (2.3)	1 (.9)	17 (9.5)
CUBANO, LATINO	2 (4.5)	0 (0)	0 (0)
MEXICAN	9 (20.5)	0 (0)	0 (0)
MEXICAN AMERICAN	19 (43.2)	0 (0)	1 (.6)
PUERTO RICAN	2 (4.5)	0 (0)	0 (0)
OTHER HISPANIC/SPANISH	6 (13.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)
AMERICAN	0 (0)	1 (.9)	24 (13.4)
OTHER	1 (2.3)	2 (1.8)	9 (5.0)
TOTALS	44 (100.0)	114 (100.1)	179 (100.1)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE

With reference to religious background, more than 80% of the Hispanics reported that they were raised as Catholics; 70+% of the Blacks reported that they were brought up as Baptists; and Whites reported a variety of religious affiliations in childhood but more than 55% specifically reported Protestant (including Baptist) backgrounds. The pattern remained the same for "present religious affiliation " with a low rate of shift towards "non-affiliation" with some cultural differences (tables 43,44). Blacks shifted at a lower rate (3.4% difference) than did Hispanics (9.1) or Whites (10.6%).

In relation to frequency of religious attendance (table 45), the Hispanic mother (50%) fell between the Blacks (68%) and the Whites (35%), with reference to more frequent and regular religious attendance (monthly plus). The differences are present when any two groups are compared as well as in each of the response categories. However, there is a signifcant difference only between Blacks and Whites.

Thus the Black group could be described as the most religious and the White group as the least religious if attendance and maintenance of religious beliefs can, in combination be interpreted to reflect such. These findings do support the notion that a majority of Hispanics are Catholic but they do not support the idea that Hispanics are the most "religious" group.

Age

In the category of age, no significant differences were found among any of the groups. The mean ages for these mothers were: Hispanics: 19.55, Blacks: 19.60 and Whites: 19.96. This places all three groups solidly in the middle range of the age possibilities represented in the N.L.S. (14 - 22). See table 46.

TABLE 43

IN WHAT RELIGION WAS RESPONDENT RAISED ?

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
NONE	2 (4.5)	3 (2.7)	10 (5.6)
BAPTIST	2 (4.5)	82 (72.6)	57 (32.0)
OTHER PROTESTANT	1 (2.3)	10 (8.8)	45 (25.3)
CATHOLIC	36 (81.8)	7 (6.2)	43 (24.2)
OTHER	3 (6.8)	11 (9.7)	23 (12.9)
TOTALS	44 (99.9)	113 (100.0)	178 (100.0)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE. FIVE CELLS < 5.

TABLE 44

PRESENT RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
NONE	6 (13.6)	7 (6.1)	29 (16.2)
BAPTIST	0 (0.0)	73 (64.0)	43 (24.0)
OTHER PROTESTANT	2 (4.5)	13 (11.4)	41 (22.9)
CATHOLIC	34 (77.3)	8 (7.0)	44 (24.6)
OTHER	2 (4.5)	13 (11.4)	22 (12.3)
TOTALS	44 (99.9)	114 (99.9)	179 (100.0)

FREQUENCY OF RESPONDENT'S RELIGIOUS ATTENDANCE

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
NOT AT ALL	8 (18.2)	11 (9.6)	48 (26.5)
INFREQUENTLY	14 (31.8)	25 (21.9)	69 (38.1)
MONTHLY	7 (15.9)	17 (14.9)	8 (4.4)
TWO TO THREE TIMES/MONTH	3 (6.8)	27 (23.7)	16 (8.8)
WEEKLY PLUS	12 (27.3)	34 (29.8)	40 (22.1)
TOTALS	44 (100.0)	114 (99.9)	181 (99.9)

CHI SQUARE: 41.0666 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 8.9594 P. < .0621 NOT SIG.
H/B: 8.0277 P. < .0905 SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 37.0329 P. < .0000 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 46

RESPONDENT'S AGE

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
FOURTEEN-SEVENTEEN	6 (13.6)	13 (11.4)	9 (5.0)
Eighteen	6 (13.6)	13 (11.4)	18 (9.9)
NINETEEN	6 (13.6)	20 (17.5)	30 (16.6)
TWENTY	8 (18.2)	26 (22.8)	50 (27.6)
TWENTY-ONE	17 (38.6)	35 (30.7)	57 (31.5)
TWENTY-TWO	1 (2.3)	7 6.1)	17 99.4)
TOTALS TOTALS	44 (99.9)	114 (99.9)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE = 11.0512 NOT SIGNIFICANT

Family Size Attitudes: "Ideal," "Desired," and "Expected" number of children were the three dimensions covered by this category. (Tables 47, 48, and 49). Hispanics were slightly above Blacks and Blacks slightly above Whites in considering "five plus" to be the ideal number of children. For all three groups, however, the frequencies and percentages for five plus children were very low (Hispanics 9.1%, Blacks 8.8% and Whites 4.4%), this was low. In the desired categories, Hispanics were higher than either Blacks or Whites. However, none of the groups actually expected to have five children. In the three-four children category the Hispanic ideal was higher than that of Blacks or Whites; the desirability was similar to Whites and only slightly higher than Blacks. Hispanic mothers did expect to have three or four children slightly more frequently than did the other two groups. The differences, however were not great. (Hispanics 43.2%, Blacks 36.3% and Whites 34.2%)

In the zero to two category Hispanics fell between Blacks and Whites in considering this the ideal. They were the least likely to consider zero to two children desirous although they were not far from the attitudes of Blacks or Whites. Their expectations, reflected the same pattern. Their actual rate of reproduction, However, was similar at this stage to Blacks and Whites and statistically speaking, the groups were not significantly different in any of the four tables. Based on the above data the hypothesis can be made that although Hispanic females may idealize and desire more children, their actual reporduction at the time of the interview nor their expectations for the future reflect this proportionately.

TABLE 47

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
IDEAL NUMBER OF CHLDREN	0-2	21 (47.7)	62 (54.9)	111 (61.3)
	3-4	19 (43.2)	41 (36.3)	62 (34.2)
	5 +	4 (9.1)	10 (8.8)	8 (4.4)
	TOTALS	44 (100.0)	113 (100.0)	181 (99.9)

CHI SQUARE: 4.72821 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 48

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
DESIRED NUMBER OF CHILDREN	0-2	25 (56.8)	81 (71.1)	120 (66.7)
	3-4	14 (31.8)	30 (26.3)	54 (30.0)
	5 +	5 (11.4)	3 (2.6)	6 (3.3)
	TOTALS	44 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	180 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 7.8823 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 49

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
EXPECTED NUMBER OF CHILDREN	0	8 (18.2)	28 (25.0)	35 (19.4)
	1 - 2	24 (54.5)	73 (65.2)	113 (62.8)
	3 - 4	12 (27.3)	9 (8.0)	28 (15.6)
	5+	0 (0)	2 (1.8)	4 (2.2)
	TOTALS	44 (100.0)	112 (100.0)	180 (100.0)

The N.L.S. item which explored the number of siblings that the respondent provided basic information about their "role models" for motherhood (family size). Table 50 summarizes the results. Hispanics were the least likely of the three groups to have no siblings (0%). They were followed by Blacks (2.9%) and then Whites (4.4%). They were the most likely tohave one sibling (15.6%).when compared with Whties (12.2%) and Blacks 2.6%). Hispanics and Blacks were very similar in their pattern of having two siblings: 9.1% and 8.8% respectively, Whites, however, were the most likely to have two siblings (13.3%). With reference to three siblings, Blacks were the least likely (11.4%). They were followed by Hispanics 13.6%) and then by Whites who were the most likely with 43.1%. Significant differences were found only between Hispanics and Whites. The data demonstrated across cultures that these mothers came from families which were larger than the national norm. Most of the respondents in each group reported having three or more siblings. Thus all had role models for slightly larger than average families.

Psychological Factors: The N.L.S. posed a few questions to the respondents which addressed themselves to role relationships in the family. The responses produced an interesting pattern for this group as a whole, that is, as women; and, for each group in relation to the other two.

First of all, as a whole, the majority of women's responses on each item was in the direction of "non-traditional roles." for women in the family. The lowest percentage rate of non-traditional responses for any item was 59.1% and most of the responses were in the seventies or eighties. It is important to keep in

TABLE. 50

HOW MANY LIVING SIBLINGS DOES THE RESPONDENT HAVE? 19

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
ZERO	0 (0)	3 (2.6)	8 (4.4)
ONE	7 (15.9)	7 (6.1)	22 (12.2)
TWO	4 (9.1)	10 (8.8)	24 (13.3)
THREE	6 (13.6)	13 (11.4)	49 (27.4)
FOUR PLUS	27 (61.4)	81 (71.1)	78 (43.1)
TOTALS	44 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	181 (100.1)

CHI SQUARE: 27.4582 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 7.9716 P. < .0926 NOT SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 5.1482 P. < .2724 NOT SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 22.7100 P. < .0002 SIGNIFICANT

mind that this is not simply a random sample of women but rather a selected group of women who have taken up the mothering role at a relatively young age and who are married more frequently than the general population. Therefore, they are living the actual dynamics of family life and out of this experience they still produce non-traditional views. (Table 51-58)

Cross-culturally these mothers responses did not produce a single significant difference. This, of course, is an interesting finding given the nature of this subsample and the "significant difference"which does exist between these real life findings and the portrayal of Hispanic womens's values in the literature.

The N.L.S. also included questions which were designed to explore the individual respondent's feeling of personal control as opposed to luck or chance in her life.

In general the results reflected that on the great majority of these items most of the mothers expressed a sense of personal control over luck or chance in their lives. Again recalling the contents of the literature on women from Freud to Bardwick, women have been portrayed as having an external locus of control. As can be seen from reviewing the data on these tables (54-62) this is not the case with this cross-cultural group of women.

In relation to inter-group comparisons the results were not signficantly different. This fact is important again because of the way minorities in general, and particularly Hispanic women are portrayed in the literature. Additionally, it is worth noting that although the differences were not statistically different, the Hispanic group did express the highest sense of control of any of the groups.

FAMILY ROLES TABLES

TABLE 51

		HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
A WOMAN'S PLACE IS IN THE HOME	DISAGREE	35 (79.5)	98 (86.7)	145 (80.6)
	AGREE	9 (20.5)	15 (13.3)	35 (19.4)
	TOTALS	44 (100.0)	113 (100.0)	180 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 2.1342 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 52

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
WIFE WITH FAMILY HAS NO TIME FOR OUTSIDE WORK?	DISAGREE	32 (72.7)	93 (83.8)	141 (78.8)
	AGREE	12 (27.3)	18 (16.2)	38 (21.2)
	TOTALS	44 (100.0)	111 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 2.5556 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 53

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
A WORKING WIFE FEELS MORE USEFUL	DISAGREE	13 (29.5)	30 (26.5)	59 (32.5)
	AGREE	31 (70.5)	83 (73.5)	121 (67.2)
	TOTALS	44 (100.0)	113 (100.0)	180 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 1.2887 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 54

		HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
WORKING WIVES LEAD TO JUVINILE DELINQUENCY?	DISAGREE	32 (72.7)	95 (85.6)	135 (75.0)
	AGREE	12 (27.3)	16 (14.4)	45 (25.0)
	TOTALS	44 (100.0)	111 (100.0)	180 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 5.4074 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 55

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
BOTH PARENTS NEED TO WORK DUE TO INFLATION.	DISAGREE	7 (15.9)	13 (11.5)	36 (20.0)
	AGREE	37 (84.1)	100 (88.5)	144 (80.0)
	TOTALS	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)

CHI SQAURE: 3.6343 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 56

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
TRADITIONAL ROLES ARE BEST?	DISAGREE	26 (61.9)	76 (67.3)	117 (65.4)
	AGREE	16 (38.1)	37 (32.7)	62 (34.6)
	TOTALS	42 (100.0)	113 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: .3957 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 57

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
MEN SHOULD SHARE HOUSEWORK?	DISAGREE	7 (15.9)	15 (13.3)	32 (17.8)
	AGREE	37 (84.1)	98 (96.7)	148 (82.2)
	TOTALS TOTALS	44 (100.0)	113 (100.0)	180 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 1.0467 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 58

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
WOMEN ARE HAPPIER IN TRADITIONAL ROLES?	DISAGREE	26 (59.1)	83 (74.8)	126 (70.4)
	AGREE	18 (40.9)	28 (25.2)	53 (29.6)
	TOTALS	44 (100.0)	111 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 3.7167 NOT SIGNIFICANT

SENSE OF INDIVIDUAL CONTROL V LUCK TABLES

TABLES 59

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
IN CONTROL	31 (72.1)	69 (60.5)	119 (65.7)
NOT IN CONTROL	12 (27.9)	45 (39.5)	62 (34.3)
TOTALS	43 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 1.9863 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 60

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
RESPONDENT'S PLANS WORK	24 (55.8)	48 (42.1)	86 (47.5)
MATTER OF LUCK	19 (44.2)	66 (57.9)	95 (52.5)
TOTALS	43 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 2.4494 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 61

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
LUCK IS NOT A FACTOR	37 (86.0)	93 (81.6)	155 (85.6)
FLIP A COIN	6 (14.0)	21 (18.4)	26 (14.4)
TOTALS	43 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: .2240 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 62

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
LUCK PLAYS A BIG ROLE	21 (48.8)	55 (48.2)	83 (45.9)
LUCK PLAYS NO ROLE	22 (51.2)	59 (51.8)	98 (54.1)
TOTALS	43 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: .2240 NOT SIGNIFICANT

Educational Aspirations: Some interesting differences and similarities were found when comparing the levels of aspirations and expectations of the cultural groups. (Tables 43 and 44). To start off, in both of these categories no significant differences were found among the three cultures although the Blacks had an edge on the other two groups in every category beyond high school. At the Bachelor's level the Blacks were most closely followed by the Hispanics; at the master's level they were followed more closely by the Whites. It is important to note that no grup actually percieved it as feasible to acquire a master's degree above the 8% level. The majority of these mothers believed they would not earn the bachelor's degree. Hispanics (78% , Blacks 68.4% and Whites 80.6%). Additionally it is important to note that all three groups had noticeably higher aspirations for the Bachelor's degree and beyond(Hispanics 34.1%, Blacks 50.9%, and Whites 36.5%) than their expectations (Hispanics 21.9% Blacks 31.6%, and Whites 19.4%). Thus the group which had the highest gap between aspriations and expectations were the Blacks with 19.3% difference followed by Whites with 17.1% difference and then Hispanics with 14.1% difference. This gap between higher aspirations and lower expectations held across cultures . Since it is a croos-cultural issue the results can either be interpreted as the internal experiences of women psychologically holding themselves back and/or external blocks which they contend with in tbir lives. Although the N.L.S. data does not provide information about environmental issues in detail (e.g. quality of schools, teacher attitudes, etc.) it does provide some informsion concerning the reasons given by respondents for having left school. As is reflected on table 45 many of the respondents gave "completion of degree" as the reason

TABLE 63

HIGHEST GRADE THE RESPONDENT WOULD LIKE TO COMPLETE

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
FIRST - TWELFTH GRADE	23 (52.3)	34 (29.8)	81 (44.8)
FIRST - THIRD YEAR OF COLLEGE	6 (13.6)	22 (19.3)	34 (18.8)
BACHELOR'S DEGREE	13 (29.5)	47 (41.2)	52 (28.7)
MASTER'S DEGREE	2 (4.5)	11 (9.6)	14 (7.7)
TOTALS	44 (99.9)	114 (99.9)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQ RE: 10.6562 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 64

HIGHEST GRADE THE RESPONDENT THINKS SHE WILL COMPLETE

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
FIRST - TWELFTH GRADE	21 (51.2)	44 (38.6)	106 (58.9)
FIRST - THIRD YEAR OF COLLEGE	11 (26.8)	34 (29.8)	39 (21.7)
BACHELOR'S DEGREE	8 (19.5)	28 (24.6)	27 (15.0)
MASTER'S DEGREE	1 (2.4)	8 (7.0)	8 (4.4)
TOTALS	41 (99.9)	114 (100.0)	180 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 12.4960 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 65

WHY DID THE RESPONDENT LEAVE SCHOOL?

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
RECEIVED DEGREE	10 (28.6)	46 (60.5)	71 (45.2)
GETTING MARRIED	5 (14.3)	2 (2.6)	18 (11.5)
PREGNANCY	7 (20.0)	7 (9.2)	23 (14.6)
DID NOT LIKE SCHOOL	2 (5.7)	4 (5.3)	15 (9.6)
POOR GRADES	0 (0)	2 (2.6)	0 (0)
HOME RESPONSIBILITIES	3 (8.6)	5 (6.6)	4 (2.5)
GOOD JOB-WORK	1 (2.9)	2 (2.6)	3 (1.9)
FINANCIAL PROBLEMS	3 ((8.6)	2 (2.6)	6 (3.8)
ENTERING MILITARY	0 (0)	1 (2.6)	3 (3.8)
EXPELLED-SUSPENDED	1 (2.9)	1 (1.3)	0 (0)
SCHOOL TOO DANGEROUS	0 (0)	0 (0)	.6 (.6)
MOVED AWAY	1 (2.9)	0 (0)	5 (3.2)
OTHER REASONS	2 (5.7)	4 (5.3)	8 (5.1)
TOTALS	35 (100.2)	76 (99.9)	157 (99.9)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE

for having left school (Hispanics 28.6%, Blacks 60.5%, and Whites 45.2%) Blacks gave this reason more frequently. Marriage, pregnancy and home-related responsibilities were given more frequently by Hispanics (42.9%) than by Whites (28.7%)or Blacks (18.4%) in that order. With reference to school-related reasons the White mothers seemed to dislike school more frequently (9.6%) than did either Blacks (5.3% or Hispanics (5.7%). The last item that produced a note - worthy response referred to financial problems. In this category Hispanics had a higher response frequency (8.6%) than did Blacks (6.6%) or Whites (3.8%) in that order. Although this particular table does not provide statistically analyzable data, it does provide basic information about the experiences of these mothers as the they themselves reported them and as such, the information can be used to begin to form some hypotheses about their experiences.

Another variable which has frequently been considered important in relation to school aspirations is the dimension of role models. With reference to the respondents' mothers as role models for education, the data reflected that these Hispanics' experiences were significantly different from Blacks and Whites. The majority of these Hispanic respondents' mothers did not go beyond eight grade (58.3%) whereas the majority of Black and White respondents' mothers made it into high school (64.2% and 71.0% respectively ; Table 66)

With reference to the respondents' fathers'educational experiences the pattern was similar. Fifty per cent of the Hispanics' fathers did not go beyond eight grade whereas the fathers of Black and White respondents went to high school (60.9% and 60.2% respectively; Table 27).

With reference to siblings as role models, first of all 100% of the Hispanics, 97.4% of the Blacks and 95.6% of the Whites reported that they had siblings. Of these 65.9% of the Hispanics reported

TABLE . 66

MOTHER'S EDUCATION

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
NONE - EIGHTH GRADE	21 (58.3)	28 (25.7)	28 (16.6)
NINTH - TWELFTH GRADE	14 (38.9)	70 (64.2)	120 (71.0)
COLLEGE PLUS	1 (2.8)	11 (10.1)	21 (12.4)
TOTALS	36 (100.0)	109 (100.0)	169 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 28.5862 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 28.9159 P. < .0000 SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 13.2811 P. < .0013 SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 3.4961 P. < .1741 NOT SIGNFICANT

TABLE 67

FATHER"S EDUCATION

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
NONE - EIGHTH GRADE	18 (50.0)	26 (29.9)	43 (25.9)
NINTH - TWELFTH GRADE	16 (44.4)	53 (60.9)	100 (60.2)
COLLEGE PLUS	2 (5.6)	8 (9.2)	23 (13.9)
TOTALS	36 (100.0)	87 (100.0)	166 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 12.5396 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 8.6205 P. < .0134 SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 13.2812 P. < .0013 SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 3.4961 P. < .1741 NOT SIG.

HOW MANY LIVING SIBLINGS DOES THE RESPONDENT HAVE? 31

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
ZERO	0 (0)	3 (2.6)	8 (4.4)
ONE	7 (15.9)	7 (6.1)	22 (12.2)
TWO	4 (9.1)	10 (8.8)	24 (13.3)
THREE	6 (13.6)	13 (11.4)	49 (27.4)
FOUR PLUS	27 (61.4)	81 (71.1)	78 (43.1)
TOTALS	44 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	181 (100.1)

CHI SQUARE: 27.4582 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 7.9716 P. < .0926 NOT SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 5.1482 P. < .2724 NOT SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 22.7100 P. < .0002 SIGNIFICANT

HOW MANY SIBLINGS ARE CURRENTLY IN SCHOOL? 69

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
ZERO	15 (34.1)	19 (17.3)	37 (21.6)
ONE	11 (25.0)	24 (21.8)	59 (34.5)
TWO	6 (13.6)	22 (20.0)	37 (21.6)
THREE	4 (9.1)	11 (10.0)	23 (13.5)
FOUR PLUS	8 (18.2)	34 (30.9)	15 (8.8)
TOTALS	44 (100.0)	110 (100.0)	171 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 28.8834 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 7.7610 P. [illegible] SIGNIFICANT

Blacks and 78.6% of the Whites. A major problem with this item was that it did not provide information concerning whether the siblings were of school age or not. It did, however, tell whether the respondent had a sibling who modeled school enrollment behaviors at the time of the interview. The data showed that although Hispanics and Blacks had a higher frequency of reporting that they had siblings than did Whites, their frequency rates for sibling who attended school were both significantly lower than Whites (tables 68&69).

Table 70 presented the same problem as did the previous one but it did not provide information about minimum achievement levels of siblings at the time of the interview. Interestingly enough there were no significant differences on this item across cultures and atleast 20% of each group of respondents had siblings who had completed some college or more. It is important to note that Hispanics and Blacks had an overall response rate that was slightly lower than 70%, that is, 68.2% and 66.9% respectively and that Whites had 71% on this particular item.

The next role model explored by the N.L.S. was the respondent's spouse (Table 71). The first element to be noted on this item was the low response rate for Blacks (21%) as opposed to Hispanics (68.2%) and Whites (76.8%). The information from this table must be complemented with the information presented in Table 12 concerning marital status. As the reader will recall Blacks had a significantly higher frequency for never having been married. Table 71, therefore, reflected that there was a more frequent absence of such a potential educational model for the Black mothers. Beyond this important factor, the data reflected that there were significant differences between the Hispanic and White experiences in that Hispanic spouses tended to have completed lower levels of education that did Blacks or Whites. As an example of this, at the zero-eighth

TABLE 70

HIGHEST GRADE COMPLETED BY OLDEST SIBLING

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
ZERO TO EIGHT GRADE	5 (16.7)	7 (8.6)	5 (4.1)
NINTH THROUGH TWELFTH GRADE	18 (60.0)	57 (70.4)	89 (73.6)
COLLEGE PLUS	7 (23.3)	17 (21.0)	27 (22.3)
TOTALS	30 (100.0)	81 (100.0)	121 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 6.1417 NOT SIGNIFICANT

Low response rates : H 68.2 W= 66.9

TABLE 71

HIGHEST GRADE COMPLETED BY MOST RECENT SPOUSE

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
ZERO - EIGHTH GRADE	7 (23.3)	2 (5.3)	8 (5.8)
NINTH - TWELFTH GRADE	17 (56.7)	26 (68.4)	109 (78.4)
COLLEGE PLUS	6 (20.0)	10 (26.3)	22 (15.8)
TOTALS	30 (100.0)	38 (100.0)	139 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 13.3649 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 10.4150 P. < .0055 SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 2.2196 P. < .0913 NOT SIG.
B/W: 2.2196 P. < .3295 NOT SIG.

[illegible] response rate H=68.2 B= [illegible]

Whites (5.8%). Interestingly, however, in the "college plus" category, Hispanics and Blacks had a higher frequency than did Whites: (20%, 26.3%, and 15.8% respectively; Table 71)

The final role model in education from the N.L.S. was the respondent's closest friend. It is important to note that this item (Table 72). explored aspirations rather than achievement and as such it could only be compared with table 63 which was the only other aspirational item in this section. No significant differences were found across the groups in this category. The Blacks however again had a slight positive edge over Hispanics and Whites in the college and beyond category. A second interesting finding was that when table 63 (respondent's aspirations) was compared with this table, the respondents themselves had higher educational aspirations than did their closest friends.

The literature has also frequently included school attitudes as correlated with educational aspirations as well as attainment. In this sample there were no pronounced differences among the three cultural groups with reference to attitudes about high school. The majority in each of the groups reported having positive attidudes in all of the dimensions presented to them on this item. The item which received the most negative response was the perception of school as boring. Although the school attitudes item as a whole could not be analyzed statistically due to cell-frequency problems it had particular relevance because negative school attitudes have frequently been linked with poor school performance particularly with reference to minorities. For this reason whatever information was available on the subject from the N.L.S. was considered worthy of mention. (Table 73)

TABLE 72

HIGHEST GRADE RESPONDENT'S CLOSEST FRIEND WOULD LIKE TO COMPLETE

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
ZERO - TWELFTH GRADE	20 (54.1)	49 (44.2)	105 (59.7)
FIRST - THIRD YEAR OF COLLEGE	4 (10.8)	20 (18.0)	16 (9.1)
BACHELORS DEGREE PLUS	13 (35.2)	42 (37.8)	55 (31.3)
TOTALS	37 (100.0)	111 (100.0)	176 (100.1)

CHI SQUARE: 8.4131 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 73

SCHOOL ATTITUDES

		HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
EASY TO MAKE FRIENDS AT SCHOOL?	VERY OR SOMEWHAT TRUE	5 (83.3)	20 (90.9)	10 (100.0)
	NOT TOO TRUE/ NOT TRUE	1 (16.6)	2 (9.1)	0 (0)
TEACHERS HELP WITH PERSONAL PROBLEMS?	VERY OR SOMEWHAT TRUE.	5 (83.3)	18 (81.8)	9 (90)
	NOT TOO TRUE/ NOT TRUE.	1 (16.6)	4 (18.2)	1 (10)
MOST CLASSES ARE BORING?	VERY OR SOMEWHAT TRUE.	2 (33.3)	12 (55.5)	4 (40)
	NOT TOO TRUE/ NOT TRUE	4 (66.7)	10 (45.5)	6 (60)
I DON'T FEEL SAFE IN SCHOOL.	VERY OR SOMEWHAT TRUE.	0 (0)	2 (9.1)	1 (10)
	NOT TOO TRUE/ NOT TRUE.	6 (100.0)	20 (90.9)	9 (90)
TEACHERS KNOW SUBJECTS WELL?	VERY OR SOMEWHAT TRUE.	5 (83.3)	18 (81.8)	10 (100.0)
	NOT TOO TRUE/ NOT TRUE.	1 (16.6)	4 (18.2)	0 (0)
YOU CAN GET AWAY WITH ANYTHING?	VERY OR SOMEWHAT TRUE.	2 (33.3)	5 (22.7)	1 (10)
	NOT TOO TRUE/ NOT TRUE.	4 (66.7)	17 (77.3)	9 (90)
FREEDOM TO LEARN AT SCHOOL?	VERY OR SOMEWHAT TRUE.	5 (83.3)	17 (77.3)	7 (70)
	NOT TOO TRUE/ NOT TRUE.	1 (16.6)	5 (22.7)	3 (30)
GOOD JOB COUNSELING AT SCHOOL?	VERY OR SOMEWHAT TRUE.	5* (100)	16 (72.7)	7 (70)
	NOT TOO TRUE/ NOT TRUE.	0 (0)	6 (27.3)	3 (30)
SATISFACTION WITH SCHOOL?	VERY OR SOMEWHAT DISSAT.	1 (16.6)	4 (18.2)	3 (30)
	VERY OR SOMEWHAT SATISFIED.	5 (83.3)	18 (81.8)	7 (70)
TOTALS FOR EACH OF THE ABOVE ITEMS EXCEPT FOR *.		6	22	10

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE. STUDENTS WHO WERE IN EIGHTH GRADE OR ATTENDING HIGH SCHOOL WERE INTERVIEWED ON THIS ITEM EXCLUSIVELY.

Occupational Aspirations: All three groups aspired to jobs with more responsibility within five years with the Blacks leading the way at the professional/managerial level (37.5%) as compared with Hispanics (25%) and then Whites (18.4%). It is important to note how frequently "minority aspirations" were higher than those of the "mainstream group". The group which was the least likely to be satisfied with the idea of remaining at the current level of employment were the Blacks (9.4%) who were followed by the Hispanics (25%), and then the Whites (29.9%). It is important to note that the majority of the mothers in the Black and Hispanic groups aspired to have either professional or "white collar" jobs. (Table 74)

With reference to the respondents' expected ability to achieve their occupational aspirations at age 35 (Table 75), all three groups were very close to considering their chances as excellent. The Hispanics were less strong in the "good" category but were the most optimistic in the "fair" category. It is important to note that none of the three groups of mothers produced a high response rate in the "poor" category.

From this section our developing hypotheses would be different from those frequently presented in the past in the social science literature on Hispanic mothers. In these results they expressed ambition for more professional and white collar employment and a solid optimism about reaching their occupational goals in the future.

The impact of role models is an issue which has become well known in the literature. As in education, the N.L.S. provided some information concerning occupational role models in the form of a few questions concerning first of all whether or not the respondents' role models (mothers, fathers, and spouses) were employed during 1973. Again these items provided limited information about the employment histories of each of these

RESPONDENT'S OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS IN FIVE YEARS

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
PROF. TECHNICAL & KINDRED WORKERS, MANAGERS, ADMINISTRATORS EXCEPT FARM.	8 (25.0)	36 (37.5)	27 (18.4)
SALES, CLERICAL, & UNSKILLED WORKERS.	11 (34.4)	28 (29.2)	39 (26.5)
CRAFTSMEN & KINDRED WORKERS, OPERATIVES EXCEPT TRANSPORTATION.	1 (3.1)	8 (8.3)	23 (15.5)
TRANSPORTATION & EQUIPMENT OPERATIVES, LABORERS, FARMERS FARM MANAGERS, FOREMEN, SERVICE WORKERS, & PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORKERS.	4 (12.5)	15 (15.6)	14 (9.5)
SAME AS NOW	8 (25.0)	9 (9.4)	44 (29.9)
TOTALS	32 (100.0)	96 (100.0)	147 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 26.7730 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 4.6946 P. < .3200 NOT SIG.
H/B: 6.8001 P. < .1468 NOT SIG.
B/W: 23.8440 P. < .0001 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 75

RESPONDENT'S EXPECTED ABILITY TO ACHIEVE OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AT AGE THIRTY-FIVE

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
EXCELLENT	6 (18.8)	20 (19.2)	26 (18.3)
GOOD	11 (34.4)	48 (46.2)	61 (43.0)
FAIR	12 (37.5)	26 (25.0)	40 (28.2)
POOR	3 (9.4)	10 (9.6)	15 (10.6)
TOTALS	32 (100.1)	104 (100.0)	142 (100.1)

provide minimal information about the status of occupational role models for the respondents around the time of the interview.

As we see on table 76, White mothers closely seconded by Black mothers were the most frequently employed of the cultural groups. Hispanic mothers were the least frequently employed. Table 77 provides information about the level of occupations which these mothers had. Although this is a descriptive table the third and least skilled category was the most frequently filled by Hispanics (88.2) then Blacks (79.1) followed and lastly (56.8) Whites. The highest level as would be expected had the reverse relationship, with Whites at 13.5%, Blacks at 6% and Hispanics at 5.9%

With reference to father employment, the data on tables 78+79 reflected that Whites and Hispanics had a very similar frequency rate of employment (72.9% and 72.7% respectively) and that Blacks had 58.8%. With reference to types of jobs table 80 indicates that White and Hispanic fathers had more frequent higher-status jobs (both 25%) then did Blacks (13.6%).

Finally in relation to spouse, Whites had the highest employment rate (73.5%); they were followed by Hispanics (63.6%) and then came the Blacks with (33.3%). On this particular category. the comparison of type of occupation across cultures was more similar than it was on either of the above two categores with a relatively low rate of employment in the highest-status category (Hispanics 6.7%, Blacks 5.3%, and Whites 7.3%). The bulk for all three groups was at the low end of the job status scale with the following rates in the third category: Hispanics (83.3%) Blacks, (86.8%), and Whites (86.9%). (Tables 80-81)

Work attitudes have traditionally been linked with occupational aspirations. The N.L.S. explored three areas under this category with this sample of mothers: work commitment, work benefits, and work satis-

OCCUPATIONAL ROLE MODELS TABLES

TABLE 76

WAS THE RESPONDENTS MOTHER/STEP MOTHER EMPLOYED DURING 1978?

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
YES	17 (38.6%)	67 (58.8%)	111 (61.3%)
NO	27 (61.4%)	47 (41.2)	70 (38.7)
TOTALS	44 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 7.5675 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W:	6.5336	P.	.0100	SIGNFICANT
H/B:	4.3922	P.	.0361	NOT SIGNFICANT
B/W:	.0988	P.	.7500	NOT SIGNFICANT

TABLE 77

WHAT WAS THE RESPONDENT'S MOTHERS/STEPMOTHERS LONGEST OCCUPATION IN 1978?

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
PROF. TECHNICAL & KINDRED WORKERS, MANGERS, ADMINISTRATORS EXCEPT FARM.	1 (5.9%)	4 (6.0%)	15 (13.5%)
SALES, CLERCIAL, & UNSKILLED WORKERS.	1 (5.9%)	10 (14.9%)	33 (29.7%)
CRAFTSMAN & KINDRED WORKERS, OPERATIVES, LABORERS, FARMERS, FARM MANAGERS, FOREMEN, SERVICE WORKERS, &PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORKERS.	15 (88.2%)	53 (79.1%)	63 (56.8%)
TOTALS	17 (100.0)	67 (100.0)	111 (100.0)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE. THREE CELLS < FIVE.

TABLE TABLE 78

WAS THE RESPONDENTS FATHER STEPFATHER EMPLOYED DURING 1978?

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
YES	32 (72.7%)	66 (57.9%)	132 (72.9%)
NO	12 (27.3%)	48 (42.1%)	49 (27.1%)
TOTALS	44 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 7.7985 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE:

H/W: .0263 P. .8712 NOT SIGNFICANT
H/B: 2.3690 P. .1238 NOT SIGNFICANT
B/W: 6.4978 P. .0108 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 79

WHAT WAS THE RESPONDENTS FATHERS/STEPFATHERS LONGEST OCCUPATION in 1978?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
PROF. TECHNICAL & KINDRED WORKERS, MANAGERS, ADMINISTRATORS EXCEPT FARM.	8 (25.0%)	9 (13.6%)	33 (25.0%)
SALES, CLERICAL, & UNSKILLED WORKERS.	1 (3.1%)	6 (9.1%)	13 (9.8%)
CRAFTSMAN & KINDRED WORKERS, OPERATIVES, LABORERS, FARMERS, FARM MANAGERS, FOREMEN, SERVICE WORKERS, & PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORKERS.	23 (71.9%)	51 (77.3%)	86 (65.2%)
TOTALS	32 (100.0%)	66 (100.0%)	132 (100.0%)

CHI SQUARE: 5.1088 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 8c

WAS THE RESPONDENTS SPOUSE EMPLOYED DURING 1978?

	HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
YES	28 (63.6%)	38 (33.3%)	133 (73.5%)
NO	16 (36.4%)	76 (66.7%)	48 (26.5%)
TOTALS	44 (100.0)	114 (100.0%)	181 (100.0%)

CHI SQUARE: 47:0121 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 1.2363 P. .0001 SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 10.7700 P. .0011 NOT SIGNFICANT
B/W: 44.6371 P. .0001 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 81.

WHAT WAS THE LONGEST OCCUPATION HELD BY THE RESPONDENTS SPOUSE IN 1978?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
PROF. TECHNICAL & KINDRED WORKERS, MANAGERS, ADMINISTRATOS EXCEPT FARM.	2 (6.7%)	2 (5.3%)	10 (7.3%)
SALES, CLERICAL & UNSKILLED WORKERS	1 (3.3%)	3 (7.9%)	4 (2.9%)
CRAFTSMEN & KINDRED WORKERS OPERATIVES, LABORERS, FARMERS, FARM MANAGERS, FOREMEN, SERVICE WORKERS, & PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORKERS.	25 (83.3%)	33 (86.9%)	119 (86.9%)
DID NOT WORK	2 (6.7%)	0 (0%)	4 (4.0%)
TOTALS	30 (100.0%)	38 (100.0%)	137 (100.0%)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE CELLS

which there were significant differences among the three groups. The items about which there was little ambivalence were: "Respondent would seek more education if unable to support family" with 92%+ positive responses from each group; "Respondent would enter a training program if unable to support the family." again with 95%+ positive responses from each group; and "respondent would shoplift if unable to support family" with 95.5%+ negative responses from each group.

Other alternative solutions produced more of a variety of responses such as: "Respondent would go on welfare if unable to support family." The majority of each of the groups responded negatively to this item amd the Hispanics were the most retiscent about accepting this as an alternative. On the item "Respondent would apply for food stamps if unable to support family," there significant differences only between Blacks and Whites, with the Whites less willing to take such an alternative. The Hispanics were in the middle with no significant differences in relation to either group and closely devided within itself almost at the fifty-fifty mark. The last item which asked whether the respondent would work if she could comfortably live without working produced interesting and significant responses again particularly between Blacks and Whites. The Blacks (82,1%) were in the lead with positive responses but they were closely follwed by Hispanics (72,7%) and then Whites who truly lagged behind with a positive response rate of only 27.1%. These findings, particularly the last item truly supported the hypothesis that Hispanic females are more interested in integrating the work and the mother role even when there is no economic pressure. This data also provided important information

WORK COMMITMENT TABLES

TABLE 82

		HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
RESPONDENT WOULD SEEK MORE EDUCATION IF UNABLE TO SUPPORT FAMILY	YES	41 (95.3)	109 (95.6)	166 (92.2)
	NO	2 (4.7)	5 (4.4)	14 (7.9)
	TOTAL	43 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	180 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 1.5848 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 83

		HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
RESPONDENT WOULD GO ON WELFARE IF UNABLE TO SUPPORT FAMILY	YES	11 (25.6)	45 (39.5)	59 (32.6)
	NO	32 (74.4)	69 (60.5)	122 (67.4)
	TOTAL	43 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 3.0379 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 84

		HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
RESPONDENT WOULD ENTER A TRAINING PROGRAM IF UNABLE TO SUPPORT FAMILY	YES	41 (95.3)	111 (97.4)	174 (96.7)
	NO	2 (4.7)	3 (2.6)	6 (3.3)
	TOTALS	43 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	180 (100.0)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE TWO CELLS < 5.

TABLE 85

		HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
RESPONDENT WOULD APPLY FOR FOOD STAMPS IF UNABLE TO SUPPORT FAMILY.	YES	20 (48.8)	75 (68.2)	98 (54.1)
	NO	21 (51.2)	35 (31.8)	83 (45.9)
	TOTALS	41 (100.0)	110 (100.0)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 7.2208 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQAURE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 2.008 P. < .1564 NOT SIG.
H/B: 4.0228 P. < .1468 NOT SIG.
B/W: 23.8440 P. < .0001 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 86

		HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
RESPONDENT WOULD SHOPLIFT IF UNABLE TO SUPPORT FAMILY	YES	2 (4.5)	4 (3.5)	3 (1.7)
	NO	42 (95.5)	110 (96.5)	176 (98.3)
	TOTALS	44 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE. THREE CELLS < 5.

TABLE 87

		HISPANIC	BLACK	WHITE
RESPONDENT WOULD WORK IF COULD LIVE COMFORTABLY WITHOUT WORKING.	YES	32 (72.7)	92 (82.1)	49 (27.1)
	NO	12 (27.3)	20 (17.9)	132 (72.9)
	TOTALS	44 (100.0)	112 (100.0)	181 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 93.2635 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 39.9713 P. .1564 NOT SIGNIFICANT
H/B: [illegible]

The work benefits tables (89-107) provided information concerning the conditions of the work environment as the respondents described them. Some were objective questions which had nothing to do with respondent's perceptions; others were more subjective. Most of these tables were slightly below the 70% cut off point if the overall sample numbers were used. However, if the working mothers were considered exclusively, the response rates were nearly one hundred percent statistically speaking. Most of the items were not significantly different across cultural groups. However, on items which were more objective in nature, for example the items: employer offers health insurance, life insurance, paid vacations, etc., Hispanics responded negatively twenty percentage points more frequently than did either of the other two groups. Of the three items the most infrequent for all three groups was the employer offering life insurance.

With reference to more subjective questions eg. "opportunity to do a number of different things on the job," the responses were fairly evenly distributed among the different possibilities. Slight positive skewing was noted on the following items: opportunity to deal with other people at the job; quality of feedback from the job; job giving a chance to do one's best; opportunity to do the whole job; physical surroundings of the job; skills learned on the job would be valuable for getting a better job; job is dangerous; exposure to unhealthy conditions; job security; friendliness of co-workers; and competence of supervisor. Negative skewing across the cultures was noted for: opportunity to do a number of different things; opportunity for independent thought or action; and good pay (Hispanics and Blacks were slightly more

WORK BENEFITS TABLES[c]

TABLE 88

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
EMPLOYER OFFERS HEALTH INSURANCE	NO	22 (71.0)	39 (50.6)	70 (54.3)
	YES	9 (29.0)	38 (49.4)	59 (45.7)
	TOTAL	31 (100.0)	77 (100.0)	129 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 3.8078 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 89

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
EMPLOYER OFFERS LIFE INSURANCE	NO	24 (80.0)	47 (60.3)	85 (67.5)
	YES	6 (20.0)	31 (39.7)	41 (32.5)
	TOTALS	30 (100.0)	78 (100.0)	126 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 3.8780 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 90

EMPLOYER OFFERS PAID VACATION		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
	NO	15 (48.4)	21 (26.9)	52 (40.9)
	YES	16 (51.6)	57 (73.1)	75 (59.1)
	TOTALS	31 (100.0)	78 (100.0)	127 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 5.9428 NOT SIGNIFICANT

[illegible]

TABLE 91

OPPORTUNITY TO DO A NUMBER OF DIFFERENT THINGS ON THE JOB

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
MINIMUM AMOUNT	8 (21.6)	19 (22.1)	20 (12.2)
NOT TOO MUCH	9 (24.3)	22 (25.6)	42 (25.6)
MODERATE AMOUNT	8 (21.6)	21 (24.4)	47 (28.7)
QUITE ALOT	5 (13.5)	13 (15.1)	45 (27.4)
MAXIMUM AMOUNT	7 (18.9)	11 (12.8)	10 (6.1)
TOTALS	37 (99.9)	86 (100.0)	164 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 16.3970   SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 10.7127   P. < .0000   SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 8.1398   P. < .0866   NOT SIG
B/W: 10.6171   P. < .0312   NOT SIG.

TABLE 92

OPPORTUNITY TO DEAL WITH OTHER PEOPLE AT THE JOB?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
MINIMUM AMOUNT	4 (10.8)	13 (15.1)	14 (8.5)
NOT TOO MUCH	7 (18.9)	13 (15.1)	19 (11.6)
MODERATE AMOUNT	6 (16.2)	11 (12.8)	22 (13.4)
QUITE ALOT	13 (35.1)	32 (37.2)	70 (42.7)
MAXIMUM AMOUNT	7 (18.9)	17 (19.8)	39 (23.8)
TOTALS	37 (99.9)	86 (100.0)	164 (100.0)

TABLE 93

OPPORTUNITY FOR INDEPENDENT THOUGHT OR ACTION AT THE JOB

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
MINIMUM AMOUNT	10 (27.0)	16 (18.6)	22 (13.4)
NOT TOO MUCH	8 (21.6)	21 (24.4)	40 (24.4)
MODERATE AMOUNT	9 (24.3)	23 (26.7)	45 (27.4)
QUITE ALOT	5 (13.5)	18 (20.9)	38 (23.2)
MAXIMUM AMOUNT	5 (13.5)	8 (9.3)	19 (11.6)
TOTALS	37 (99.9)	86 (99.9)	164 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 5.6244 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 94

OPPORTUNITY TO DEVELOP CLOSE FRIENDSHIPS AT WORK?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
MINIMUM AMOUNT	2 (5.4)	8 (9.3)	18 (11.0)
NOT TOO MUCH	9 (24.3)	13 (15.1)	26 (15.9)
MODERATE AMOUNT	10 (27.0)	16 (18.6)	39 (23.8)
QUITE A LOT	13 (35.1)	31 (36.0)	59 (36.0)
MAXIMUM AMOUNT	3 (8.1)	18 (20.9)	22 (13.4)
TOTALS	37 (99.9)	86 (99.9)	164 (100.1)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE TWO CELLS < 5.

TABLE 95

QUALITY OF FEEDBACK FROM THE JOB ?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
MINIMUM AMOUNT	3 (91)	6 (7.1)	8 (5.1)
NOT TOO MUCH	0 (0)	12 (14.3)	8 (5.1)
MODERATE MOUNT	12 (36.4)	18 (21.4)	30 (19.0)
QUITE ALOT	10 (30.3)	33 (39.3)	69 (43.7)
MAXIMUM AMOUNT	8 (24.2)	15 (17.9)	43 (27.2)
TOTALS	33 (100.1)	84 (100)	158 (100.1)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE TWO CELLS < 5.

TABLE 96

THE JOB GIVES YOU A CHANCE TO DO YOUR BEST

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
NOT AT ALL TRUE	5 (15.2)	8 (9.4)	9 (5.7)
NOT TOO TRUE	7 (21.2)	15 (17.2)	32 (20.3)
SOMEWHAT TRUE	10 (30.3)	37 (43.5)	69 (43.7)
VERY TRUE	11 (33.3)	25 (29.4)	48 (30.4)
TOTALS	33 (100.0)	85 (99.9)	158 (100.1)

CHI SQUARE: 4.9724 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 97

OPPORTUNITY TO DO THE WHOLE JOB?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
MINIMUM AMOUNT	6 (16.2)	7 (8.1)	14 (8.5)
NOT TOO MUCH	7 (18.9)	8 (9.3)	12 (7.3)
MODERATE AMOUNT	9 (24.3)	18 (20.9)	28 (17.1)
QUITE ALOT	8 (21.6)	29 (33.7)	67 (40.9)
MAXIMUM AMOUNT	7 (18.9)	24 (27.9)	43 (26.2)
TOTALS	37 (99.9)	86 (99.9)	164 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 11.5861 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 98

HOW MUCH BROAD SIGNIFICANCE DOES THE JOB HAVE?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
MINIMUM AMOUNT	7 (18.9)	16 (18.6)	8 (4.9)
NOT TOO MUCH	7 (18.9)	17 (19.8)	28 (17.1)
MODERATE AMOUNT	9 (24.3)	18 (20.9)	40 (24.4)
QUITE ALOT	9 (24.3)	17 (19.8)	59 (36.0)
MAXIMUM AMOUNT	5 (13.5)	18 (20.9)	29 (17.7)
TOTALS	37 (99.9)	86 (100.0)	164 (100.1)

CHI SQUARE: 19.2116 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

[illegible] 9.5560 P.< .0486 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 99

ARE THE JOB'S PHYSICAL SURROUNDINGS PLEASANT?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
NOT AT ALL TRUE	1 (3.0)	5 (5.9)	9 (5.7)
NOT TOO TRUE	5 (15.2)	13 (15.3)	26 (16.5)
SOMEWHAT TRUE	16 (48.5)	41 (48.2)	68 (43.0)
VERY TRUE	11 (33.3)	26 (30.6)	55 (34.8)
TOTALS	33 (100.0)	85 (100.0)	158 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 1.1733 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 100

THE SKILLS YOU ARE LEARNING WOULD BE VALUABLE GETTING A BETTER JOB?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
NOT AT ALL TRUE	6 (18.2)	12 (14.1)	22 (13.9)
NOT TOO TRUE	5 (15.2)	20 (23.5)	32 (20.5)
SOMEWHAT TRUE	10 (30.3)	20 (24.7)	32 (30.4)
VERY TRUE	12 (36.4)	32 (37.6)	56 (35.4)
TOTALS	33 (100.1)	85 (99.9)	158 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 1.9226 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 101

IS THE JOB DANGEROUS?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
NOT AT ALL TRUE	20 (60.6)	50 (58.8)	73 (46.2)
NOT TOO TRUE	6 (18.2)	19 (22.4)	45 (28.5)
SOMEWHAT TRUE	6 (18.2)	12 (14.1)	27 (17.1)
VERY TRUE	1 (3.0)	4 (4.7)	13 (8.2)
TOTALS	33 (100.0)	85 (100.0)	158 (100.0)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE. TWO CELLS < 5.

TABLE 102

EXPOSED TO UNHEALTHY CONDITIONS?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
NOT AT ALL TRUE	20 (60.6)	50 (58.8)	87 (55.1)
NOT TOO TRUE	6 (18.2)	21 (24.7)	28 (24.1)
SOMEWHAT TRUE	5 (15.2)	9 (10.6)	19 (12.0)
VERY TRUE	2 (6.1)	5 (5.9)	14 (8.9)
TOTALS	33 (100.1)	85 (100.0)	158 (100.1)

CHI SQUARE: 1.8753 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 103

THE PAY IS GOOD?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
NOT AL ALL TRUE	7 (21.2)	15 (17.6)	18 (11.4)
NOT TOO TRUE	10 (30.3)	18 (21.2)	25 (15.8)
SOMEWHAT TRUE	12 (36.4)	39 (45.9)	78 (49.4)
VERY TRUE	4 (12.1)	13 (15.3)	37 (23.4)
TOTALS	33 (100.0)	85 (100.0)	158 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 9.8219 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 104

THE JOB SECURITY IS GOOD?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
NOT AT ALL TRUE	3 (9.1)	9 (10.6)	17 (10.8)
NOT TOO TRUE	9 (27.3)	13 (15.3)	15 (9.5)
SOMEWHAT TRUE	11 (33.3)	34 (40.0)	48 (30.4)
VERY TRUE	10 (30.3)	29 (34.1)	78 (49.4)
TOTALS	33 (100.0)	85 (100.0)	158 (100.1)

CHI SQUARE: 12,6797 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 9.1702 P. < .0271 NOT SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 2.2636 P. < .5195 NOT SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 6.0498 P. < .1092 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 105

ARE YOUR CO-WORKERS ON THE JOB FRIENDLY?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
NOT AL ALL TRUE	1 (91)	1 (1.2)	2 (1.3)
NOT TOO TRUE	0 (0)	3 (3.6)	6 (3.9)
SOMEWHAT TRUE	8 (24.2)	26 (31.0)	47 (30.7)
VERY TRUE	24 (72.7)	54 (64.3)	98 (64.1)
TOTALS	33 (99.9)	84 (100.1)	153 (100.0)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE FIVE CELLS < 5.

TABLE 106

IS YOUR SUPERVISOR COMPETENT IN HIS JOB?

NOT	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
NOT AT ALL TRUE	1 (3.0)	3 (3.6)	4 (2.6)
NOT TOO TRUE	3 (9.1)	4 (4.8)	6 (4.0)
SOMEWHAT TRUE	4 (12.1)	30 (35.7)	45 (29.8)
VERY TRUE	25 (75.8)	47 56.0)	96 63.6)
TOTALS	33 (100.0)	84 (100.1)	151 (100.0)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE SIX CELLS < 5.

negative on this item.) On the following items little skewing was noted: opportunity to develop close friendships at work; the broad signficance of the job; and chances for promotion.

With reference to general work satisfaction items (tables 108-110) 80%+ of each group of respondents reported that they would take another job. From 69% to 47% felt that it would be somewhat difficult to find a comparable job with Hispanics being the most concerned and Whites being the most optimistic. Finally 78%+ of each group liked their jobs fairly well or very much.

In summary then, the data reflected that attitudes and perceptions about the job were similar cross-culturally, and that more often than not they were positive. However, respondents were interested in finding new positions and Hispanics were the most conservative about estimating the probability of finding comprable jobs. These findings therefore, have a contribution to make to the literature which states that employment problems frequently are the consequence of the subjects' negative attitudes.

In the previous section the data began to reflect more environmental issues faced by these mothers in the form of work benefits or the lack of them. In this section data which reflects external factors which may block the progress of these mothers will be described. Specifically the mothers were asked about two possible problems: transportation and english. With reference to the former (Table 111), 60%+ of each of the groups did not consider transportortation a problem and there were not significant differences across cultures. With reference to English as a problem (table 112), 86% of each of the groups did not consider this a problem. Of course, the Hispanic group did consider it more of a problem (14%)

TABLE 107

ARE THERE GOOD CHANCES FOR PROMOTION AT YOUR JOB?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
NOT AT ALL TRUE	6 (18.2)	15 (18.8)	39 (24.8)
NOT TOO TRUE	7 (21.2)	20 (25.0)	33 (21.0)
SOMEWHAT TRUE	9 (27.3)	29 (36.3)	47 (29.9)
VERY TRUE	11 (33.3)	16 (20.0)	38 (24.5)
TOTALS	33 (100.0)	80 (100.1)	157 (99.9)

CHI SQUARE: 4.1665 NOT SIGNIFICANT

WORK SATISFACTION TABLES

TABLE 108

WOULD THE RESPONDENT TAKE ANOTHER JOB?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
RESPONDENT WOULD TAKE ANOTHER JOB	28 (80.0)	72 (88.9)	116 (74.8)
RESPONDENT WOULD KEEP THE SAME JOB	6 (17.1)	8 (9.9)	38 (24.5)
RESPONDENT WOULD NOT WORK.	1 (2.9)	1 (1.2)	1 (0.6)
TOTALS	35 (100.0)	81 (100.0)	155 (99.9)

CHI SQUARE: 8.6265 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 109

HOW HARD WOULD IT BE TO FIND A COMPARABLE JOB?

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
EXTREMELY DIFFICULT	3 (8.3)	23 (27.1)	36 (22.1)
SOMEWHAT DIFFICULT	25 (69.4)	48 (56.5)	77 (47.2)
NOT DIFFICULT	8 (22.2)	14 (16.5)	50 (30.7)
TOTALS	36 (99.9)	85 (100.1)	163 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 11.7380 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 6.4052 P. < .0406 NOT SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 5.2925 P. < .0709 NOT SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 5.8931 P. < .0525 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 110

RESPONDENT'S ATTITUDE TO HER CURRENT JOB

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
LIKES IT VERY MUCH	12 (32.4)	21 (24.7)	61 (37.4)
LIKES IT FAIRLY	20 (54.1)	46 (54.1)	76 (46.6)
DISLIKES IT SOMEWHAT	5 (13.5)	13 (15.3)	18 (11.0)
DISLIKES IT VERY MUCH	0 (0)	5 (5.9)	8 (4.9)
TOTALS	37 (100.0)	85 (100.0)	163 (99.9)

CHI SQAURE: 6.4066 NOT SIGNIFICANT

than Blacks (3.6%) and Whites (2.2%). Additionally the mothers were asked if there were other problems casuing difficulties in getting a good job (table 113). 53.5% of the Hispanics, 35.5% of the Blacks, and 40.2% of the Whites responded positively. The specific problems identified by the mothers can be seen on table 114.

In relation to other problems which stood in the way of these mothers' getting a better job, all three groups felt that they lacked experience. Blacks and Hispanics more frequently reported this then did Whites. Lack of education was the second most frequently mentioned barrier for all three groups. Hispanics fell between Whites and Blacks in this category. The third highest specifically named issue for Hispanics was child care. They seemed to share this problem more with White mothers than with Black. The findings reflect that in addition to problems of discrimination, Hispanic mothers had a number of other problems with which to contend (one of them being English) and of the ones specifically mentioned the most potent in order of importance were: lack of experience, education, and child care.

In relation to discrimination (tables 115-118) the data showed that in race, nationality, and age these Hispanic women experienced more stress than did either of the other two groups. Predictably so, racial discrimination was very similarly experienced by Blacks). Interestingly enough the most potent stressor at this stage of life which cut across races and went beyond sex discrimination was the issue of age.

The above data, therefore, reflect that Hispanic as well as Black mothers feel discriminated against. Of course the perrennial question in psychology is whether these are attitudes of the women

TABLE 111

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
LACK OF TRANSPORTATION A PROBLEM?	NO	26 (60.5)	71 (64.0)	120 (67.0)
	YES	17 (39.5)	40 (36.0)	59 (33.0)
	TOTALS	43 (100.0)	111 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: .7659 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 112

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
DIFFICULTY WITH ENGLISH A PROBLEM?	NO	37 (86.0)	106 (96.4)	175 (97.8)
	YES	6 (14.0)	4 (3.6)	4 (2.2)
	TOTALS	43 (100.0)	110 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE. TWO CELLS < 5.

TABLE 113

ANY OTHER PROBLEMS CAUSING PROBLEMS?

ANY OTHER PROBLEMS?		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
	NO	20 (46.5)	71 (64.5)	107 (59.8)
	YES	23 (53.5)	39 (35.5)	72 (40.2)
	TOTALS	43 (100.0)	110 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 4.1799 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 114

FIRST OTHER PROBLEM GETTING GOOD JOB

	HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
LACK OF EXPERIENCE	10 (43.5)	17 (43.6)	26 (37.1)
LACK OF EDUCATION	5 (21.7)	6 (15.4)	19 (27.1)
LACK OF TRAINING	0 (0)	6 (15.4)	3 (4.3)
LACK OF ABILITY	0 (0)	1 (2,6)	2 (2.9)
ILLITERATE	0 (0)	1 (2.6)	0 (0)
HEALTH PROBLEMS	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (1.4)
POOR APPEARANCE	0 (0)	1 (2.6)	1 (1.4)
LACK OF CHILDCARE	2 (8.7)	1 (2.6)	7 (10.0)
FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (1.4)
DON'T KNOW WHERE TO LOOK	1 (4.3)	0 (0)	1 (0)
LACK OF AVAILABLE JOB	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (2.9)
OTHER	5 (21.7)	6 (15.4)	8 (11.4)
TOTALS	23 (99.9)	39 (100.2)	70 (99.9)

DESCRIPTIVE TABLE. RESULT OF A SKIP PATTERN FROM PREVIOUS TABLE.

DISCRIMINATION TABLES

TABLE 115

RACIAL DISCRIMINATION IS A PROBLEM?		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
	NO	36 (83.7)	93 (83.8)	175 (97.8)
	YES	7 (16.3)	18 (16.2)	4 (2.2)
	TOTALS	43 (100.0)	111 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 20.4057 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQAURE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 11.6923 P. .0006 SIGNFICANT
H/B: 5.4785 P. .0192 NOT SIG.
B/W: 17.1619 P. .0000 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 116

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
NATIONALITY DISCRIMINATION IS A PROBLEM?	NO	38 (88.4)	100 (90.1)	178 (99.4)
	YES	5 (11.6)	11 (9.9)	1 (.6)
	TOTALS	43 (100.0)	111 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

CHI SQAURE: 16.7036 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 12.2197 P. .005 SIGNIFICANT
H/B: .003 P. .9563 NON-SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 12.8384 P. .0004 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 117

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
SEX DISCRIMINATION A PROBLEM?	NO	38 (88.4)	96 (86.5)	148 (82.7)
	YES	5 (11.6)	15 (13.5)	31 (17.3)
	TOTALS	43 (100.0)	111 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 1.2824 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 118

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
AGE DISCRIMI-nation a PROBLEM?	NO	24 (55.8)	80 (72.1)	107 (59.8)
	YES	19 (44.2)	31 (27.9)	72 (40.2)
	TOTALS	43 (100.0)	111 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 5.6741 NOT SIGNIFICANT

which become self fulfilling prophesies or are they primarily a harsh reality with which they must contend. The best method to further explore this is to compare such findings as the ones presented here with studies which examine discriminatory processes in large institutions.

Another important fator which could be a barrier in terms of acquiring a good job is having or not having essential information about the world of work. The N.L.S. posed a number of questions to the respondents which explred their knowledge about the nature of different jobs. For this group of mothers the results were the following: White mothers were consistently (with one exception only) the most accurate in determining the nature of each of the jobs. The exception was the "economist". The difference, however, on this item was not significant. The Hispanics were the next group to consistently and accurately describe the nature of the jobs also with one exception (medical illustrator). This exception too was not significant. Most of the responses of all three groups were accurate within the 70% range with two exceptions: "medical illustrator" which produced a range within the forties for Blacks and Hispanics and the 60s for Whites and "machinist" which produced a range from 30 to 60% across the groups. (Tables 119-127). Thus it becomes clear that the cultural group which most needs information of the nature of different jobs is the Black group. The Hispanics followed and then the Whites. All three groups of mothers showda need to learn more about the nature of jobs given that most of their responses were only within the 70% correct response range.

TABLE 119

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
HOSPITAL ORDERLY'S DUTIES	CORRECT RSPONSES	29 (72.5)	81 (71.7)	158 (88.3)
	INCORRECT RESPONSES	11 (27.5)	32 (28.3)	21 (11.7)
	TOTALS	40 (100.0)	113 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 14.2232 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 5.3127 P. < .0211 NOT SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 1.1166 P. < .2906 NOT SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 11.7359 P. < .0006 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 120

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
DEPARTMENT STORE BUYER's DUTIES.	CORRECT RESPONSES	31 (75.6)	73 (64.0)	140 (78.2)
	INCORRECT RESPONSES	10 (24.4)	41 (36.0)	39 (21.8)
	TOTALS	41 (100.0)	114 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 7.2661

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 5.3127 P. < .0211 NOT SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 1.1166 P. < .2906 NOT SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 11.7359 P. < .0006 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 121

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
KEY PUNCH OPERATOR'S DUTIES	CORRECT RESPONSES	28 (71.8)	73 (65.2)	124 (70.5)
	INCORRECT RESPONSES	11 (28.2)	39 (34.8)	52 (29.5)

TABLE 122

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
FORK LIFT OPERATOR'S DUTIES	CORRECT RESPONSES	29 (74.4)	69 (62.7)	148 (84.1)
	INCORRECT RESPONSES	10 (25.6)	41 (37.3)	28 (15.9)
	TOTALS	39 (100.0)	110 (100.0)	176 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 16.8345 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 1.4630 P.<.2265 NOT SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 1.2522 P.<.2631 NOT SIGNIFICANT
B/W:15.7308 P.<.0001 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 123

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
MEDICAL ILLUSTRATOR's DUTIES	CORRECT RESPONSES	19 (46.3)	54 (47.8)	113 (64.6)
	INCORRECT RESPONSES	22 (53.7)	59 (52.2)	62 (35.4)
	TOTALS	41 (100.0)	113 (100.0)	175 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 9.8518 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 3.9097 P. .0500 NON-SIGNIFICANT
H/B: .001 P. .9748 NON-SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 7.2654 P. .007 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 124

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
MACHINIST'S DUTIES	CORRECT RESPONSES	19 (47.5)	34 (31.2)	112 (63.3)
	INCORRECT RESPONSES	21 (52.5)	75 (68.8)	65 (36.7)
	TOTALS	40 (100.0)	109 (100.0)	177 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 27.9573 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: 2.7670 P. < .0962 NOT SIGNIFICANT
H/B: 2.7211 P. < .0990 NOT SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 26.5195 P. < .0000 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 125

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
DIETICIAN'S DUTIES	CORRECT RESPONSES	28 (71.8)	69 (61.6)	142 (79.3)
	INCORRECT RESPONSES	11 (28.2)	43 (38.4)	37 (20.7)
	TOTALS	39 (100.0)	112 (100.0)	179 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 10.8434 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: .6655 P. < .4146 NOT SIGNIFICANT
H/B: .4146 P. < .3424 NOT SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 9.9844 P. < .0016 SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 126

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
ECONOMIST'S DUTIES	CORRECT RESPONSES	31 (81.6)	81 (72.3)	141 (80.6)
	INCORRECT RESPONSES	7 (18.4)	31 (27.7)	34 (19.4)
	TOTALS	38 (100.0)	112 (100.0)	175 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 3.0428 NOT SIGNIFICANT

TABLE 127

		HISPANICS	BLACKS	WHITES
ASSEMBLER'S DUTIES	CORRECT RESPONSES	29 (72.5)	72 (64.9)	140 (78.7)
	INCORRECT RESPONSES	11 (27.5)	39 (35.1)	38 (21.3)
	TOTALS	40 (100.0)	111 (100.0)	178 (100.0)

CHI SQUARE: 6.6454 SIGNIFICANT

CHI SQUARE WITH BONFERRONI PROTECTION:

H/W: .4002 P. < .5269 NOT SIGNIFICANT
H/B: .4675 P. < .4941 NOT SIGNIFICANT
B/W: 5.9621 P. < .0146 SIGNIFICANT

Summary: With reference to family related issues, the Hispanic mothers in this sample population did not demonstrate a motivation to become mothers at an earlier age than the other two groups. No significant differences were found in this category. They did tend to leave school for family-related reasons (pregnancy, mariage, etc). They also tended to be married and stay that was. The majority were born in the United States but a large minority were born outside the U.S. Eighty-nine percent of them spoke Spanish in their childhood. They were raised as Catholics and continued to practice at the time of the interview.

Among these mothers who were active outside the home, most worked and expressed a desire to continue working in the future even if they did not meed to for economic reasons. They were also very interested in additional job training, aspired to obtain better jobs in the future and felt optimistic about being able to do so. If their families had economic problems in the future they strongly preferred other alternatives rather than going on welfare and they were almost 100% opposed to considering such alternatives as shoplifting to alleviate their problems.

They felt blocked in their work aspirations by transportation problems, English, and discrimination due to race and nationality. They needed to know more about jobs and other employment issues and they seemed to be the recipients of fewer benefits on the job than did the other two groups.

Although these young mothers had limited role models for educational achievement, they had very positive attitudes toward school and aspired to complete college successfully. The majority of them, however, left high school before graduating and many did so for family related reasons or financial reasons.

Overall these young mothers had a strong sense of personal control over their lives, attributing little to chance or luck. Additionally, they expressed very egalitarian ("non-traditional") attitudes concerning roles in the family.

The purpose of this study was to provide a more subject-generated overview of the young Hispanic mothers experience. As such it was only a starting point from which more indepth and specific research should emerge. As the Hispanic mother profile is examined there are a number of critical points which need further exploration. They gap between aspirations when compared to drop out rate needs to be carefully studied with a smaller sample of interviewees. A more open-ended interview would be beneficial in order to gain insight into the wide range of special circumstances and resistances which young Hispanic mothers face and to explore what if any common personal dynamic they bring to the situations.

At a broader level research on the area of cross-cultural relations in school systems as well as employment setting continues to be absolutely crucial. The work of orgahizational systems analysis is, relatively speaking, a fairly young component of psychology to tools of which are still quite embryonic. The need for this type of exploration is particularly important in the more realistic understanding of cross-cultural relations.

Thirdly, I would suggest the continuation of research in the area of healthy bicultural development. For groups which have valued the maintenance of a separate cultural identity while developing as a part of the U. S. society, this is particularly important. It is even more important to those groups which have experienced discrimination and exploitation in this country.